FIFTY YEARS

—OF—

NATIONAL EDUCATION

IN

NEW ZEALAND

1878-1928

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OFFICERS OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, 1928

(HON. R. A. WRIGHT IN CENTRE OF SECOND ROW)

Wellington

Fifty Years

of

National Education

in

New Zealand

1878-1928

WHITCOMBE & TOMBS LTD.
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PREFACE.

This small volume is published to commemorate the jubilee of the establishment of a national education system in New Zealand. It is in no way an official publication of the Education Department, but merely a collection of historical facts and reminiscences from some of those who have made the education of the young people of this Dominion their life-work. Its primary intention is to sketch the gradual growth of our education sytem during the past fifty years, and to place on record the indebtedness of the present generation to the admirable foresight and endeavour of the pioneers of education in New Zealand, to whom these pages are dedicated. The thanks of the Editor are offered to those contributors and others who have so willingly and wholeheartedly assisted in placing on record the various steps which have led us to a system of universal education, free from the kindergarten to the university, of which we are all justly proud. We hope that our readers will not think the various subjects have been treated with too little solemnity. Any touch of lightness there may be is due not to any lack of appreciation of the importance of the subject but to the editor's desire that the articles might be made as readable as possible for the general public who find little that is attractive in the style of an official report. The various writers were allowed to write freely and the opinions they have expressed are not necessarily those either of the Department or the Minister.

I. DAVEY, B.A.,
Editor.

1928

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FOREWORD BY THE HON. R. A. WRIGHT, MINISTER OF EDUCATION.

I regard it as a privilege that I should be holding the portfolio of Education on the occasion of the fiftieth anniversary of National Education in this country, particularly as my predecessors have been gentlemen of such outstanding personality. One need but mention such names as Sir Robert Stout, Rt. Hon. R. J. Seddon, Sir James Allen, Sir George Fowlds, Hon. J. A. Hanan and Sir James Parr to realize that no matter to what political party those gentlemen may have been attached, the country has been particularly fortunate in the selection that has been made from time to time of Ministers to the portfolio of Education—a portfolio recognized throughout the world as one of paramount importance. No less has this country been fortunate in the appointment of its administrative officers in the Education Department, and in this connexion I wish to make particular reference to the splendid work of Dr. John Hislop, first Secretary of the Department, and Mr. George Hogben, Inspector-General from 1899-1915. Among so many able gentlemen it is perhaps invidious to select two for special mention, but in the case of Dr. Hislop it must be remembered that his was the difficult task of overcoming local prejudice against central control and of reconciling widely different and frequently conflicting shades of thought, and in the case of Mr. Hogben that it was largely due to his active mind, wide outlook and untiring perseverance that we have to-day a system of free education from the kindergarten to the University.

Nor do I think that the country is less indebted to its Education Boards. One must always remember that members of Education Boards give their leisure, their energy, their thought, to the welfare of teachers and children without the slightest idea or prospect of financial gain. As a member of an Education Board for many years, I can speak freely and feelingly on this subject. But above all I think the country is indebted to the School Committees, whose interest in their particular schools, whose efforts to raise funds for improvements to site and building, and whose concern for the welfare of children and teacher are beyond all praise.

Yet the education system of any country depends in the last resort mainly on the teachers. In this regard, too, New Zealand is fortunate. Whether it be due in part to the more liberal salaries now paid, to the efficiency of the training college course, or to the devotion of the teachers themselves, the fact remains that excellent service to the country is rendered. Indeed, I have often thought that people expect altogether too much of our teachers. After all, a teacher has charge of a child for much less than half his waking hours, and why, therefore, should the teacher be held responsible, as he often is, for the moral as well as the mental upbringing of the children? Surely the home also, the father and the mother, the general social environment, have a greater responsibility.

There are many improvements that I can see are urgently necessary for the welfare of children and teachers, but these improvements can be made only with the assistance of increased finance—always a difficulty. During my term of office I have endeavoured to reduce the size of large classes by authorizing the appointment of additional teachers and by remodelling school buildings. I have also endeavoured to bring about an improvement in the syllabus. I have given careful consideration to the closer welding of primary and secondary education by the process of transferring children of Standards V. and VI. to a

secondary school environment, but here again I found myself handicapped by the vital factor of finance.

In conclusion, I wish to pay a sincere tribute to the excellent work of the pioneers of our present education system. No building can stand unless the foundations are solid, and this being so our educational structure is in no danger of collapse.

I may add that I am not necessarily in accord with all the views expressed in the various articles of this publication.

THE EXPANSION OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

Sir EDWARD GIBBES, Bart., formerly Secretary for Education.

Whatever may have been the views and aspirations of its authors, the Education Act of 1877 was not the expert and statesmanlike measure that it is commonly thought to be, for in essentials its form was determined not by the knowledge and insight of competent men, but by the restrictive political influences of the time. The Provincial Governments, each with its own more or less organized system of education, had only just been abolished, these provincial systems had been carried on, at Government expense, of course, by the creation of temporary provincial education boards; and provincial feeling being what it was, provincial or some other form of local government there had still to be. Certainly no more of central control than such a skeleton of a department as the Act provided would have been accepted by a Legislature of such strong provincial sympathies. A system of some kind, however, had to be produced forthwith, and there being no provincial or local funds, nor any prospect of the provision of any, the cost of it had, of course, to be borne by the Government. Out of such conditions, therefore, arose the remarkable expedient of handing over to locally elected Boards, without reservation of any power of control or supervision, the expenditure of the public funds provided by the State for a great public service; these Boards being endowed with statutory incomes of £3 15s. per unit of school attendance, to be used for the purposes of the Act practically at their own discretion. At the time apparently the arrangement was not regarded as having any unusual aspects, although there can be little doubt that similar treatment of any other department of State would

not have been regarded as possible. In administration it has been productive of trouble, misapprehension and irritation far beyond public knowledge.

Financially, the structure from the very beginning showed evidence of serious instability, and the fifty years now under review have been a period of steady and irresistible pressure of natural law to bring about equilibrium between the authorities that have the spending of the money and those that provide it and have the responsibility of showing to the satisfaction of the country whether or not the expenditure has been justified. "Man proposes, God disposes." Man—local man—set out the plan of which an outline has been given and, working slowly, "the eternal verities" have ground it down to a mere appearance of reality. The endowment that was to secure the Boards from interference and give them permanence has, on the contrary, been a substantial weakness, having naturally subjected them to a constant and general inquiry and criticism. Moreover it had no security of tenure; the State that gave it has taken much of it away; and in the uncertainty of what might be done the Boards have lived for years, and, unless the system is changed, must continue to live, in peril of their lives. The same conflict between local and national aims brought about the downfall of the provincial governments. At the other end of the scale—and this is an ironic commentary on the charge of "centralization" often made by the Boards against the Department—the development of school committees has been frustrated mainly because the Boards—the source of the committees' funds— have centralized in themselves much of the authority that the committees were expected to exercise. Compare these committees as they are with what they were planned to be. "Subject to the general supervision and control" of the Boards they were to have the management of educational affairs within their districts, establish schools, provide schoolhouses by building or otherwise, improve, enlarge, and fit them

up, supply apparatus and everything necessary for efficiency, appoint teachers of sewing, establish savings-banks, issue good-attendance certificates; and such proportion of the costs, including the cost of new sites as the Board directed, was to be defrayed by the committee out of the School Fund.

(It may be remembered that a certain committee that at first had the whole of one of the large cities for its district, becoming of quite notable importance and drawing prominent men to its membership, was eventually disestablished by the Board, which constituted in its stead a separate committee for each school in the city, and that at the time the current belief was that the Board's action was due to jealousy, but this, of course, was very many years ago.)

There can be little doubt that, at this time of the day at any rate, a mere statement of the financial provisions of the Act should be sufficient to condemn them. It is clear that with every grant of money from the Government, or from a Board to a committee, there must be conditions and restrictions, with sufficient authority behind them to secure that the expenditure shall be according to the intention. There must also be a watchful eye for the "thin end of the wedge." This is not "centralization" as it is commonly called, meaning the reverse of a term of endearment, it is no more than necessary defence of the public purse.

The Act provided for primary education only, and the business of the Department established by the Act was confined to that subject. A very sketchy department it was, even on those lines. It had to "generally administer" the Act, to make some regulations of a general character, to supply the statutory allowances to the Boards that were the real operative power, and to make an annual report. That was about all. An inspector might be appointed, but what his duties were to be was not stated; the Boards appointed their own school inspectors. The Department had no local officers of any kind, though without them the claims

for capitation and other allowances could be subjected to no test and had simply to be taken on trust.

The growth of the Department has been often enough a subject of adverse comment, although as a concomitant of a half-century's development of an educational system that in the beginning was not more than elementary, there is surely nothing remarkable about it. It has come about, in the first place, quite naturally by "the process of the suns." With the increase of population and the extension of agencies competent to deal with them, there have arisen demands for the services of the Department that were either allied to its ordinary work or that fell naturally within its scope; for example the education of the deaf, the examination and classification of teachers, the Civil Service and scholarship examinations, schools at the Chatham Islands, public libraries, higher education, etc. The education of the Maoris, the management of reformatories and the care of neglected and destitute children were specifically exempted from the operation of the Act, and yet they were assigned to the Department during the first eighteen months of its existence. The work in connexion with these services has, of course, progressively increased.

An account of the Department's expansion in so far as that is involved in the relationship between the central authority and the local boards must necessarily relate mainly to details of administration that cannot be of general interest, but a few examples will show that such transfer of authority as has occurred, leading to the Department's greater exaltation, has been due either to legislation or to nothing more than the necessity for transacting the public business satisfactorily, comprehensively and economically, and is in fact an instance of evolution, mainly because the Boards—the source of the Committees' funds—have centralized in themselves much of the authority that the Committees were expected to exercise.

It has been said that no sooner had the Act come into

operation than the inherent defects in its financial provisions became apparent. The first officer called upon to administer it was John Hislop afterwards LL.D., Edinburgh, (honoris causa) who as an expert had been co-adjutor with its political sponsor in the preparation of the Act. As teacher, inspector and secretary of the Education Board under the Otago Provincial Government he had had full experience of such work as he now had to undertake, and had no illusions as to the difficulties before him. Two of these, which he had immediately to attend to, exemplified what he foresaw; the first being the distribution of a sum of £100,000 that had been voted for school buildings. The Boards' demands were for about twice this amount; he had no means of judging their relative merits, and knew that dissatisfaction awaited any apportionment that might be made. "The first nail in the coffin" he declared.

The second instance appeared in the accounts of the temporary boards that were in charge during the year that elapsed between the abolition of the Provincial Governments and the consolidation under the Education Act. The expenses of these boards had to be met by the Treasury, which was given no means of checking or limiting the claims. Mr. Hislop had to report on the operations of these boards. Trained in a hard school, a pioneer of the early days, used to the practical economics of the time, and characteristically strict in the management of public funds, he had brought the administrative costs of his branch of the Otago Provincial Government to a rate of about 1s. 9d. per school attendance. To his great disturbance he found that in these other districts the same administrative costs varied in rising amounts up to £1 14s. 5d. per attendance. He found also other instances of extravagance; one Board had claimed for six months about £3,000 in excess of its calculated allowance for the whole year; another whose allowance for six months would be about £8,200 had claimed for the period £14,225. In view of these and other similar indications of the need for control he soon came to the

conclusion that the Department must necessarily rise above the negligible position to which it was assigned.

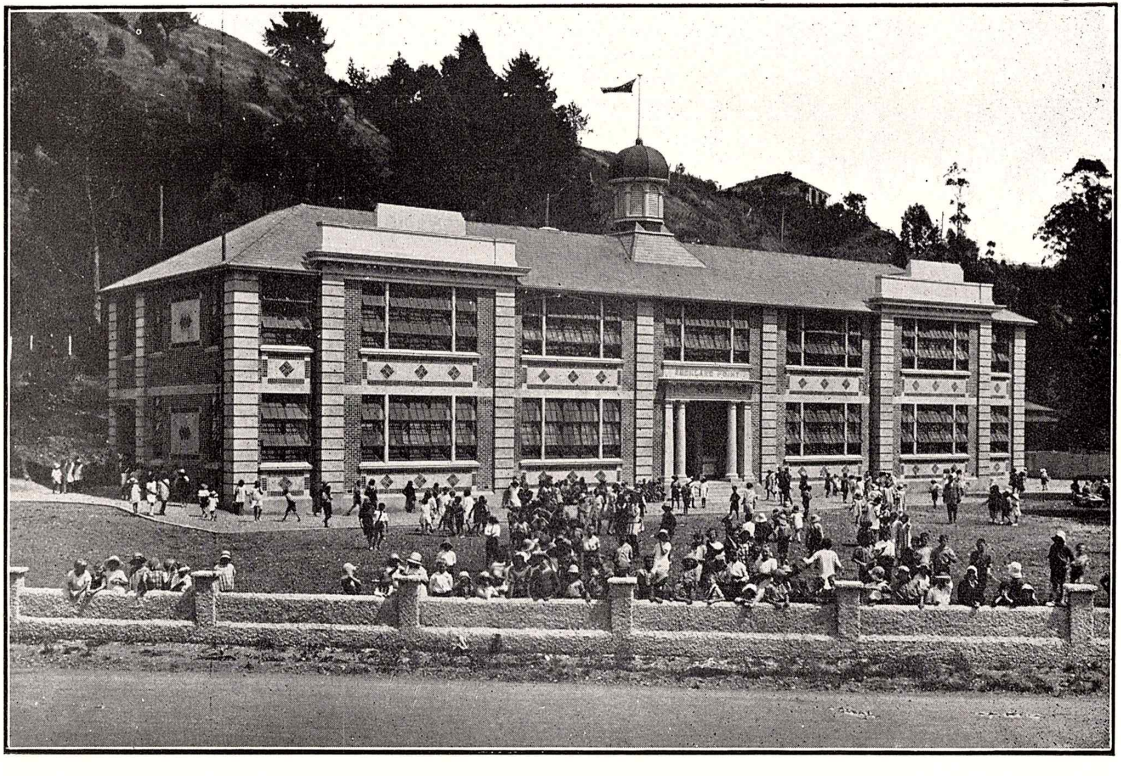
The distribution of the votes for school buildings has always been a particularly difficult business. There has been usually an annual vote of £100,000 or more, which has rarely been adequate to the demands made in respect of it. (In the Minister's report for 1878 it is said that although £250,000 had been granted for school buildings in two years there was some complaint of its inadequacy). At first, in the absence of any departmental knowledge of the relative merits of the Boards' claims, distribution of the votes could be made in no other way than in proportion to the population of the several districts; an illogical and most unsatisfactory method indeed, for with a greatly varying activity of settlement one would probably receive more and another less than actual need. Moreover, as may be supposed, the human nature of the Boards always impelled endeavours, each for itself, to get as much as possible of the money that was going. In time, therefore, it became necessary to require lists in detail in support of the claims and, again for want of any other means of checking them, these lists had to be referred to the Lands Department for verification of the estimates of new settlement and school population. The Lands Department sent them to its local officers, and this brought a storm of aspersion; the Education Boards, the constituted educational authorities, were being over-ridden by land rangers and rabbit inspectors! What was never sufficiently appreciated was the Department's responsibility as advisers of the Government in regard to the disposal of the money; the government itself being, in turn, responsible to Parliament, and having to meet the strictures to be expected from representatives of localities concerned.

Besides these inter-tribal conflicts there were various other troubles, one in particular arising from the contiguity of districts having widely varying resources and holding different

ideas of what constituted proper school accommodation. Of two adjoining Boards one might set up ideals far beyond what the country could afford; so in the course of settlement it would occur that on the boundary two new schools would be required a few miles apart for which the claims of the two boards would vary by as much as a third. For every reason the grant should be the same for both, but to call upon one board to enlarge its claim would not be "practical politics"; to reduce that of the other would undoubtedly cause an explosion.

The position in respect of these special grants was quite absurd. The Government with the money to give was not allowed the privilege of ascertaining the condition for itself, and simply had to act arbitrarily, and of course more or less blindly. Not until the transfer of the inspectors of schools from the service of the Boards to that of the Government had the Department any officers outside of its own in Wellington.

Circumstances had indeed forced the change. Nationalization of the teaching service, for example, had become imperative, but a general grading according to efficiency was not practicable while the inspectors all acted under independent authorities. Again, the standard of attainment for certificates of proficiency varied so greatly that on one investigation it was found that the percentage of candidates gaining these certificates ranged from 42 per cent. in one district to 86 per cent. in another; that is to say that pupils' chances for free places in secondary schools or for positions in the public service and elsewhere were twice as good in some places as in others. In regard to the special votes (for new schools, additions, residences, sites, conveyance of children, etc.), it is obvious that while it is the Government's duty to distribute these funds, with proper regard to the necessities for which they are intended to provide, it is essential for it to have the advice of officers who not only know the districts concerned, but from a knowledge of the conditions elsewhere and



AUCKLAND POINT PRIMARY SCHOOL, NELSON CITY

of the general policy of the Government in relation to the subject are able to take a more comprehensive view than is open to them as purely local officers necessarily having considerable regard to the views of their employers. There are other equally cogent arguments for this instance of centralization, some of them based on professional considerations that need not be entered upon here. Sufficient has probably been said on the subject, but it may be added that the time had certainly come for securing to the large body of important officers forming the inspecting staff the advantage of more equality in pay and greater opportunity for promotion than was afforded by service under institutions of such widely varying means of rewarding them.

Probably a change that has had the most depressing effect on the circumstances and especially on the authority of the Boards, with a corresponding advance of the central authority, was brought about by the institution in 1901 of a national scale for the determination of the rates of salary to be paid to the teachers of the public schools. One must suppose that provincial myopia and not oversight was responsible for the very great disparity in the financial resources, and, therefore, in the efficiency of the several districts. There were originally twelve of these districts, their school attendance varying approximately from 700 to 13,000 and their yearly income from £4,000 to £60,000. The result might have been anticipated from observation of the effects in daily life of the unequal distribution of wealth. The smaller districts got into difficulties to a greater or less extent, in one case ending in bankruptcy and the bailiffs. In all these smaller districts necessary economies led to inferior staffing of the schools, inadequate payment of the teachers and general weakening of the service. Everywhere could be found cases of galling inequality; teachers in adjoining districts doing the same work yet with salaries varying sometimes by as much as 75 per

cent. So intolerable did the conditions become that the Government had at length to intervene, and by the consequent regulation of staffs and salaries to remove at least one great source of unrest and dissatisfaction. The amount involved in this innovation is over £500,000, and, without doubt it must be agreed that the nationalization of this branch of the service was inevitable.

At one time special allowances were made to the Boards for scholarships, and there were a dozen different schemes for examination and award involving not only expense but unequal conditions for these benefits. By the establishment of National Scholarships and the automatic award of free places in secondary schools the Government further nationalized the education system and removed the anomalies referred to. The Legislature has also now placed the control of the supply of trained teachers in the hands of the Minister; the four training colleges were previously under Board control. It was increasingly evident that to leave the business of recruiting such a national service as the teaching service in the hands of four education boards, one in each of the four centres, when none of these had any responsibility towards either the Dominion as a whole or the rest of the Boards, was sure to be a source of weakness and likely to lead on the one hand to a surplus of teachers, and on the other to a shortage for which there would be no certain responsibility. The institution of a teacher's court of appeal against dismissal or transfer, and of a superannuation system is a further example of how in the ordinary course of development the education system has become nationalized. In years gone by school committees received grants varying greatly from district to district according to the generosity or the impecuniosity of the Boards. These grants by way of allowances are now also nationalized and all committees in whatever part of New Zealand they are situated are treated alike. In general there has

been a distinct trend away from the old provincial form of government, because the provision of virtually the whole of the money spent on education coming from the national purse the control of the expenditure of that money must naturally and inevitably be in the hands of the Government, that is, the representatives of the people who provide the money. And while the present system lasts there can be no alternative.

It has been the Board's misfortune to have inherited and been for years overshadowed by the old provincial exclusiveness; an exclusiveness that arose, of course, from the circumstances in which the various settlements were founded and the long isolation of the several centres. And they have been condemned to this long effort to carry out a quite impracticable system of which the failure to realize expectations can in no way be due to them. It is reasonable to suppose, however, that if they had been enabled and had taken a wider view of the educational affairs of the country, had lifted their eyes to the horizon and observed the trend of events that were so vitally affecting them, they might by co-operation and united action have brought about the removal of many of the anomalies that were causing so much general concern; perhaps have led even to such a remodelling of the system as would have created a really practicable form of the local government that is still the ideal. They of all others had the knowledge that might have initiated reform, and for themselves secured a new hold on public sympathy. They may have missed the opportunity; it would not now be easy to undo what has been done, but who is to say that it is too late?

Why should there not be local rating? Broadly speaking it would come to the same thing in the end, for the same money would come from the same people, only the people themselves instead of the Government would handle the money. And it would get rid of much of the centralization that otherwise, while being inevitable, is regarded by many as a menace to the ultimate welfare of the community.

AFTERGLOW.

Whene'er I see an old schoolhouse deserted,
With perhaps a lilac bush beside its door,
And through its broken windows see gold splotches
Of sunshine lying on its quiet floor,

I wonder where the children are whose footsteps
Wore thin the centre of its narrow sill,
And somehow, in the silence, floating round me,
I hear the echo of their voices still.

A tinkling sound, far off, like elfin laughter,
The muffled thud of childish, running feet;
And in the deep grass growing round the doorstep,
I hear their whispers, rustling soft and sweet.

O'er a broken fence, sometimes, wild roses
Bring to my heart the fragrance of a day
When I, too, walked the path of golden childhood
All down a happy, laughter-ringing way.

And so, whene'er I see an empty schoolhouse,
Whose poor old windows stare like sightless eyes,
As though they reached in blind and tearful yearning
To see some loved one far beyond the skies,

A sadness always comes to me unbidden;
A sudden loneliness, a nameless pain;
A wish that I could give that empty schoolhouse
Its happy, laughing children back again.

Frances Wright Turner, Elsworth, Maine.

REMINISCENCES.

C. R. Bossence, Ex-Inspector of Schools, Otago.

Parental prejudices dull perception, so not infrequently is the goose considered a swan. Examples of this are within the experience of most teachers, especially those who have prepared boys for scholarships.

Tom was a decent fellow of rather mediocre abilities, but only by dint of extraordinary effort on the part of all concerned was he pushed through the Civil Service Examination, but he was low down on the list. A fellow teacher, congratulating the proud father on his son's success, remarked how fortunate he was in having Mr. X. to work so hard with Tom. To this he replied: "Yes, but wasn't Mr. X. lucky in 'avin' such a 'ead to work on?" Truly the lot of the coach is hard, a boy's success being attributed to talent, while failure is debited to bad teaching.

As a test in illustrative drawing, the inspector had written on the blackboard a rhyming couplet, incidentally asking the class to name the author. Various guesses from Shakespeare to Burns were made, but all incorrect. Subsequently, to the teacher's enquiry, the inspector admitted that "it was a small thing, but his own."

The pupils having evidently been instructed not to be so free in guessing on similar occasions, had their opportunity next year when required to illustrate graphically:

"The sun sinks slowly o'er the seas
While scud the yachts before the breeze."

Not a hand was held up when the inspector asked: "What poet wrote that?" No response appeared forthcoming, when the dull boy of the class, violently gesticulating, jumped up, calling out:

"No poet at all, sir, for I seen you do it yourself as I was fillin' the ink-wells." Much merriment was evinced in the class, the inspector quoting *sotto voce* for the teacher's hearing:

"Ah! many a shaft at random sent
Finds mark the archer little meant."

The manners of the boys were not up to the standard of the new teacher, who requested them to salute him whenever they met outside. Subsequently he was confronted by a nuggety son of Erin expressing strong dissatisfaction at his boy's "bein' forced to touch his hat to iny man, taycher or not."

After a little argument, and probably the effect of a well-chosen story in which an Irishman outwitted a Scot, it was agreed that the salute should be left to young Tim's discretion.

Now, teacher evinced keen interest in athletics, a novelty in the school, and soon his pupils became enthusiastic over organized games. Some months had elapsed, when he is again accosted by the passive-resisting parent. "Bedad, sorr," said he, "ye can get my bhoy up at sivin in the mornin' to pull out his liver in a boat, and it takes me all my toime to git him up at eight to get his breakfast. I take off me hat to yez and if Tim don't do it, I'll break his neck!"

Moral: have a few adjustable stories for the disgruntled, and you will often save the situation.

Intimation of the inspector's visit had been received; the teacher, a sufferer from chronic *inspectoritis,* while conducting Sabbath service at the local Bethel, tendered thanks to Providence for the absence of inspectors from heaven. Of course this was duly reported to the official who, unperturbed, asked his informant if she did not think "that gratitude might have been tendered to the wrong power." A strong sectarian bias of this teacher at times caused trouble, with the result that the inspector, during the depth of most severe winters, had twice to hold enquiries. On the second occasion, after the exercise of a little

tact and much persuasiveness, the matter was smoothed over, the teacher seizing a suitable opportunity to thank the inspector, as on a former occasion: "You know, sir, I mean well." The inspector, confronted with a long return journey in falling snow and over swollen streams, testily replied: "For heaven's sake, my good man, in future don't *mean* so well, and you may *do* better. Good-bye!"

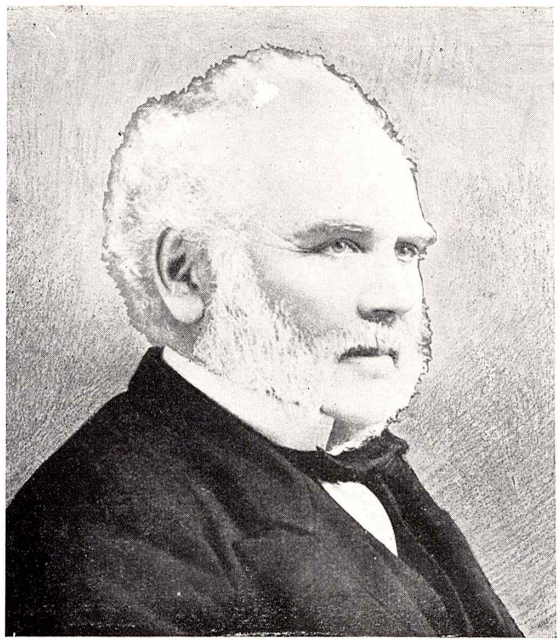
On a sultry day a pungent malodour pervaded the atmosphere of the little school of the decayed mining township. "Stand all who have been riding billygoats!" commanded the teacher. Three moleskin clad youths slowly upend themselves, apprehension depicted on their features. With expression of ineffable disgust with withering scorn he orders them: "Go out, and remain till you are clean!" With concealed pleasure they depart, and necessarily do not return till the following day. The teacher being informed by his landlady that the goat was exploited by the boys as a surreptitious means of getting a holiday from relieving teachers, made plans for future action, the occasion for which presented itself before long. "Billygoat riders stand!" he commands. Eleven boys, comprising the whole male population of the school, stand promptly to attention in smiling expectancy of a holiday. But "the best laid schemes o' mice and men gang oft agley." Rightly concluding that a suitable atmosphere for correlation had been created, the relieving officer required the culprits to compose, draw, write, and even figure about the objectionable quadruped, whilst he himself, from a sufficiently removed position outside directed through the window the studies of the riders, at the same time prohibiting the recreation except on Saturday and holidays. This last concession was granted in response to the representation of the chairman of the School Committee, who endeavoured to state that this youthful form of equestrianism had the sanction of long usage in the community, as it made the boys " 'andy at 'andlin' an 'orse."

JOHN HISLOP.

John Hislop, LL.D., F.R.S., Edin., was the first Secretary to the Education Department. He was born near Edinburgh in 1821 and came to New Zealand in 1856. He came out to Dunedin under appointment as a teacher, and was appointed first to the Taieri and later to Saddle Hill, in Otago. In 1861 he became Secretary for Education to the Otago Provincial Council, and in 1877, after the abolition of the Provincial Governments, became first Secretary of Education to the New Zealand Government, and held this office until his retirement in 1886. He drafted the first Education Act, the main principles of which have continued in force until the present day. It is interesting to note that during part of his term of office his son, the late Hon. T. W. Hislop, held the portfolio of Minister of Education in the last Atkinson Cabinet.

REV. W. J. HABENS.

Mr. Habens was born in Brighton, in June, 1839, and was educated at Hackney College, London. In 1862 he secured his B.A. degree at London University, and a year later was received into the Congregational Church Ministry. He was appointed to the first Congregational Church in Christchurch. In 1878 he became Inspector-General of Schools, a new position created by the Education Act of 1877, and later, on the retirement of Dr. Hislop, became, also, Secretary of Education. In co-ordinating the various systems of education that had been adopted by the different provincial councils, Mr. Habens naturally had his hands full, but he carried through the work in an eminently satisfactory manner. Throughout his official life his health was indifferent, and there is no doubt that his zeal for work helped to undermine his health. He was twice seized with paralysis, and eventually, after a prolonged illness, passed away on 3rd February, 1899.



JOHN HISLOP
FIRST SECRETARY OF EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

REV. W. J. HABENS

THE DEBATE ON THE EDUCATION BILL, 1877.

W. Yates, A.R.A.N.Z., Education Department.

"And oft a retrospect delights the mind."—Dante.

In the case of the particular retrospect with which we are concerned, to anticipate delight of mind from a mere contemplation of the past is to court disappointment. Little mental exultation is gathered as one cons in the musty records of Parliament the speeches of our legislators on educational aims and ideals half a century ago. Mental satisfaction begins to dawn only when, disappointed with the drab, colourless, and uninspiring nature of the public outlook on matters connected with education, as disclosed in these fifty-year-old volumes, the mind brings into contrast the picture of the position in our day on such matters and notes the truly remarkable advance made in the short space of half a century by the leading public opinion in its appreciation of the problems and purpose of education.

The Parliamentary debate on the Education Bill of 1877 was, judged on present-day standards, a rather dreary and narrow affair. Seldom did the debate lift its head above local politics and secular or sectarian prejudice. The legislators of that day will, however, not be hastily condemned on this account, when it is remembered that in 1877 New Zealand was just emerging from a period of administration of education by provincial, local and religious bodies. During this period each such body had commenced to build up a separate system and tradition which could not hope to remain undisturbed in some respect by the inauguration of a national system. Something of the dilemma facing Parliament in its consideration of the Bill was indicated by one

of the members during the debate, when he said: "The whole question of this national education is embarrassed by conflicting opinions, political exigencies, and religious biases." It is little wonder then, that there were two abortive attempts before a national system could be successfully established.

The Education Bill of 1877 was introduced in the House of Representatives on the 24th July of that year by the Hon. Charles C. Bowen, Minister of Justice, in the Ministry of Major Harry A. Atkinson. In asking leave to introduce the Bill the Hon. Minister referred to previous unsuccessful attempts to establish a national system of education. He said that as the result of education administration being left to the provinces, "there has been a very great diversity not only in the amount of teaching power in the different parts of the country, but in the average attendance of children and in the amount of school accommodation." This, and the fact that "there are still in this country a very large number of children growing up in absolute ignorance," probably emboldened the Government of the day to make a further attempt to establish a national system. "Experience of all countries show," said the Honourable Minister, "that it is absolutely the duty of the State to provide that primary education, which is the key to knowledge for every child." The Minister then outlined the leading principles of the Bill. One, at least, of the Honourable Minister's utterances will give present-day educationists food for thought. It was as follows: "It is not intended to encourage children whose vocation is that of honest labour to waste in the higher schools time which might be better devoted to learning a trade, when they have not got the special talent by which that higher education might be made immediately useful." To-day, fifty years after this pronouncement, we find education authorities, at the dawn of a new era, reiterating this view and endeavouring to divert children from cuff-and-collar occupations. Will history repeat itself, or

will the next half-century close with the dignity of trades and trades education firmly established?

The debate on the second reading of the Bill commenced with a preliminary skirmish on a question as to whether the debate should not be postponed in order that public opinion might be gained on the Bill. One member was astonished, nay indignant, to learn that "when in Otago last Friday no copies had reached there." A Government daring to reckon without its Otago on a matter of education! However, he was subsequently mollified, it appears, for *Hansard* says: "It has since been distributed throughout Otago and meetings are being held to consider it." From the same member we incidentally learn that there was a great diversity of opinion on the subject of education. To which the harassed educationist of to-day will doubtless add with weary resignation "and there still is." It is interesting to note that despite the fact that Otago had not yet expressed its views there were members prepared to proceed with the Bill. One of these was the Prime Minister, who, we feel, must have had a very safe seat, for he said: "I hope that while at all times we shall be prepared and very glad to receive the opinion of the country upon measures before us, we shall still be ready to express our opinion without waiting to hear those of the public in order to form ours. I take it that it is our duty to lead the country in this matter." Albeit, whether it was that the majority in the House disagreed with the Prime Minister's views or did not have such safe seats as his, *Hansard* records that the motion to adjourn the debate for one week was carried.

When the adjourned debate was resumed, it became apparent at an early stage that the main bone of contention would be the clause in the Bill providing for the opening of schools each day by the reading of the Bible and the Lord's Prayer. Member followed member in monotonous procession to express his views on the clause. Some indication of the height to which feeling had risen on this matter was given by one member who said,

"We have heard in some places rebellion absolutely advised on account of these clauses." The nearest approach to a "breeze" during the whole debate came on the third reading when one member said, in reference to the clauses, that "the only people who are not in favour of unsectarian education are a few newspaper men and a few infidels and inebriates, especially from the gold fields." However, he was quick to assure the startled House that in using the expression "infidels from the gold fields" he referred to persons outside the House. The explanation was unreservedly accepted by Mr. Speaker and tranquillity was quickly restored to a slightly ruffled Chamber.

The general attitude of some of the members to the Bill as expressed in the debate on the second reading is of interest. One member, whom we suspect of having a showman's instinct, was obviously disappointed with the poor house the debate attracted. His educational slogan at future elections would, we feel, be "kids before kattle" for he goes on to say disgustedly; "Had the question been the amendment of an Impounding Bill we should have had a full house." Sir George Grey gives evidence of being profoundly impressed with the importance of the subject for he said: "The whole question is one of such magnitude and greatness that it is with perfect awe that one approaches it."

One member made no secret of his determined opposition to the Bill. He said, "I shall be happy to vote for throwing out the Bill altogether, but if it goes to Committee I will endeavour to amend it to make it more workable and if it cannot be made more workable I will vote against it on the third reading." A tough fellow this, we feel, "agin the Government" to the death. This estimable gentleman further harangued the House in these terms: "I am against compulsion on the ground that fathers want the help of the boys in the field and mothers want the help of girls in housework. The first necessity of life is food, the next is clothing, and these being supplied you may venture on the luxury

(sic) of education. The question is, is it better to have a well educated and ill-fed population or an ill-educated and well fed population?'' It apparently did not occur to this worthy advocate of child labour that there was a third choice, viz., a well educated and well fed population.

One member saw in the Bill a centralizing measure giving the Minister in Wellington power to ''override the Board by a stroke of his pen.'' History does not say whether in the past fifty years any Minister has been induced to attempt this equestrian feat with so novel a steed.

From the discussion on a clause vesting the appointment of teachers in Boards instead of in School Committees we glean interesting information on the lot of the teacher and the method of his appointment in those days. One member in support of his claim that the proposal would meet with opposition said, ''I have hitherto been in favour of leaving the appointment of teachers in the hands of School Committees simply because it gave the members a certain amount of interest in their work.'' The welfare of the pupils was evidently a minor consideration. In any case it was probably thought in those days of education by personal violence that there were other means of making the pupils interested or appear to be interested in their work. The honourable gentleman, however, found some consolation in the fact that certain funds were to be placed at the unrestricted disposal of the committees. ''This, to a great extent,'' he said, ''will compensate for the loss of power to appoint teachers,'' which, we think, shows a commendable desire on the part of the honourable gentleman not to quibble over what kind of a toy the Committee baby had so long as it had a toy. We learn further from this gentleman that, ''Teachers are entirely subject to the caprice of the local committees.'' ''I have known,'' he goes on, ''cases where the schoolmaster had to act as a kind of clerk to members of the

Committee. He had to keep accounts, write letters, and do other things which he was afraid to refuse to do for fear of dismissal.'' From another member we learn that ''in the Auckland Province there have been many cases in which the election, dismissal, and suspension of teachers were the occasion for a sort of free fight, and the result has been far from advantageous to the educational interests of the district.'' Nor, may we add, to the neighbourly relations of the district. We are told by one member that in a district with which he was acquainted there were teaching in the schools ''four common drunkards and one man who had stood in the dock for a criminal offence.'' On these standards the monthly meeting of the local teachers' institute (if any) must surely, we imagine, have been a choice gathering. This member goes on to say that ''any man of intelligence, a broken-down military officer, or any person down on his luck, who was troublesome to his neighbours, who did not know how to support him, was, under the system of appointment by School Committees, almost sure to get appointed as a teacher.''

If we can judge from one or two statements during the debate, the financial operations of educational authorities were attended by a great amount of uncertainty. It appears that the Auckland Provincial Government with a sum of £4,500 nominally collectable each year as rates for education was never able to collect in any year more than £1,725— and this ''at the expense of summoning a number of people at a cost far exceeding all that was got from them.'' In one instance, to collect £1,036 12s. 10d. a sum of £1,477 was paid in legal expenses, leaving the authority £441 in debt.

One curious clause in the Bill which drew forth a protest from at least one member was as follows: ''No resolution or decision come to at any meeting of a Board shall be altered or revoked at any subsequent meeting of the Board within twelve months from the passing thereof''—in other words, a Board may

not change its mind for twelve months. The Government of the day had not, it seems, foreseen the entry into public life of woman, with prescriptive right to change her mind at any time without let or hindrance.

As might be expected there was little discussion during the debate on the actual aim of the instruction to be given in the schools. One utterance that was made on this subject, however, deserves a place in this brief sketch. It was: "I think it is nothing short of a national misfortune that in a Bill providing an education system for the Colony there is not a single word about industrial education. We are essentially a working people and Latin and Greek are held out to us while all that makes nations great in commerce and progress is omitted altogether." One can easily imagine how strangely out of tune such an utterance must have sounded in the classical atmosphere of fifty years ago. How strikingly near the correct tune it was has been amply proved by the developments of subsequent years.

The chief amendment made in the Bill at the Committee stage was the deletion of the proposed provision for the opening of schools by the reading of the Bible and the Lord's Prayer. Thus was laid down the principle of a system of education purely secular which has withstood to this day many determined attempts to shake it.

The last brush on the Bill took place on the question: That the following be the title of the Bill: "An Act to make provision for the better Education of the People of New Zealand." The controversial point in this title seems to have been the word "better." One member saw in the title an imputation that the past regime had been a failure. He thought they should "deal with that which was passing as gently as possible." Another saw an implication that not only children but also old people in New Zealand required to be better educated than they were. However, a compromise was effected by the substitution of the

word "further" for "better" and the title became: "An Act to make provision for the further Education of the people of New Zealand."

And now ere we turn the last musty page let us pause to pay tribute to the Parliament which gave us this, the first Act, to make provision for the further Education of the People of New Zealand. If at times our short review of the debate has seemed over flippant for such a grave subject let the fault be excused as an attempt to comply with the stern editorial dictum:—"Be light." Let us hasten to add, though, that no one is more deeply appreciative than ourselves of the fact that despite occasional crudities of educational thought and opinion the Parliament of 1877 in its wisdom passed the legislation which provided the machinery for the building up of a national system of education that has given to New Zealand no less, and probably far more, than was expected of it.

BUILDING THE BRIDGE.

An old man, treading a lone highway,
Came, at the evening, cold and grey,
To a chasm, vast, and deep, and wide,
Through which was flowing a sullen tide.
The old man crossed in the twilight dim:
The sullen stream had no fears for him;
But he turned, when safe on the other side,
And built a bridge to span the tide.
"Old man," said a fellow pilgrim, near,
"You are wasting your strength with building here;
Your journey will end with the ending day,
You never again must pass this way;
You have crossed the chasm, deep and wide—
Why build you the bridge at eventide?"
The builder lifted his old grey head:
"Good friend, in the path I have come," he said,
"There followeth after me to-day
A youth, whose feet must pass this way.
This chasm, that has been naught to me,
To that fair-headed youth may a pitfall be.
He, too, must cross in the twilight dim;
Good friend, I am building the bridge for him."

—*W. A. Dromgoole.*

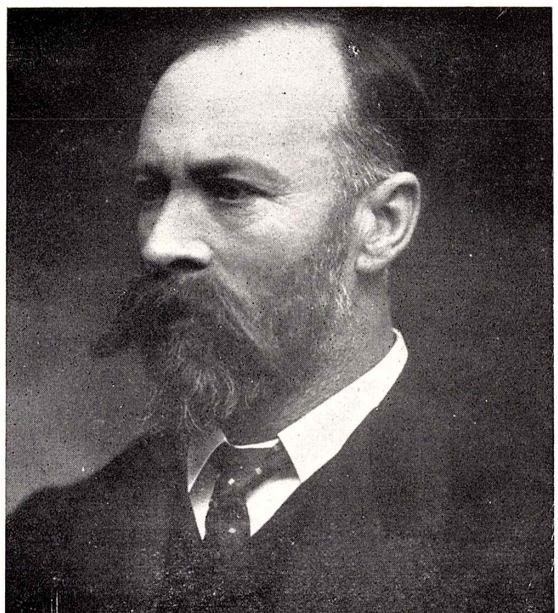
GEORGE HOGBEN.

Mr. George Hogben was born in Islington, London, in 1853. He entered the English civil service and became junior auditor in the Controller-General's Department. He left the service to go to Cambridge, where he graduated M.A. in 1881. He was mathematical scholar and prizeman, and from the athletic point of view rowed three years for his college.

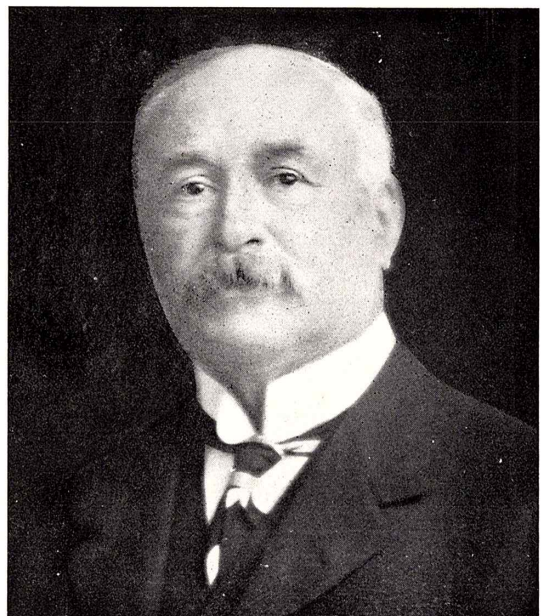
In New Zealand he was mathematical and science master at the Christchurch Boys' High School. Five years later he was appointed Inspector of Schools, North Canterbury, and later headmaster of the Timaru Boys' High School. In 1899 he became Inspector-General of Schools, a position which he held until his retirement in 1915. During his term of office many important reforms were instituted, the most important being the introduction of free education in secondary and technical schools. It has been said of him that "no other man who has ever been associated with the administration of the education system of this Dominion has left a deeper and more permanent impression upon it, nor can any other man of his time lay claim to having done more to further the cause of educational progress. He was a hard fighter, but a fair fighter, and was absolutely without vindictiveness."

DR. W. J. ANDERSON.

William John Anderson was born in 1854 and received his education in Ireland. He attended Queen's Colleges at Belfast and Cork where he gained various prizes in the classical side and in modern languages and obtained also in 1875 the senior scholarship in Ancient Classics and Ancient History, Cork. The same year he graduated as Bachelor of Arts with First Class



GEORGE HOGBEN



DR. W. J. ANDERSON

Honours and the Gold Medal in Ancient Classics. Two years later he obtained the M.A. Degree with First Class Honours and Gold Medal in Ancient Classics at the Queen's University in Ireland. The Degree of Bachelor of Laws came with Second Class Honours in 1880 followed two years later with the Degree of LL.D. Subsequently by act of Parliament these degrees were transferred to the Royal University of Ireland. In New Zealand Dr. Anderson has held a Teacher's A1 Certificate since 1897.

Dr. Anderson's experience as a teacher and inspector extended till 1906. His earliest teaching positions were in Ireland followed by the post of second master at the Grammar School, Rockhampton, Queensland, which position he retained until 1884 when he came to New Zealand as Inspector of Schools under the old South Canterbury Board of Education. After two years in South Canterbury Dr. Anderson was appointed Inspector under the North Canterbury Education Board and remained there for twenty years until his selection from a large number of applicants for the new post of Assistant Inspector-General of Schools.

On Mr. Hogben's retirement at the end of 1914 Dr. Anderson, after a short period as Acting Director of Education, was appointed as Director of Education from the 1st May, 1915. Dr. Anderson held the position of Director throughout the difficult and strenuous period of the War, his difficulties of administration, in common with those of other Heads of Government Departments and private concerns, being rendered much more onerous during these years on account of the depletion of staffs. Dr. Anderson's retirement from active service came at the end of March, 1921, after more than 44 years devoted to the cause of education.

For many years Dr. Anderson was a member of the University Senate and took a great interest in the work of the Universities generally in New Zealand.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CURRICULUM.

J. Caughley, M.A., Director of Education, Fiji,
Formerly Director of Education for New Zealand.

There is in human nature a constant impulse to plan and build not merely to meet the needs of the present but to expand the bounds of human life and powers for the future.

Though the spur of necessity challenges man to hold his own against the demands of life, he is also stimulated by the nobler desire to mould the future of his race and to project, as it were, his communal self towards and in response to a final cause, with whose exalted nature he feels himself to be in harmony. Other incentives and aspirations might be considered, but it suffices for the present purpose to note only this "*vis a tergo*" of the pressure of present life, and the "onward yearnings of unstilled desire," that, as part of his idealised self, beckon man towards "the one far-off divine event to which the whole creation moves."

Neither these two forces themselves, nor the means by which they operate and the ends they attain are mutually exclusive; yet in relation to education their implications have too often been regarded as antithetical. Thus material and spiritual, reality and ideal, means and end, practice and theory, matter and method, technical and academic, utilitarian and cultural, have all too frequently been divorced both in thought and in practice.

In reality, each of these can realise itself only through its co-relative; and neither truly exists except, like cause and effect,

at the point of their junction or fusion. In education the study of every so-called utilitarian or technical subject can and should bring culture to the student. Likewise every cultural subject must, to realise its own proper value, have a reactive relationship with the realities of life. Any course of study or any school or institution that creates a divergence of the cultural from the real or practical, is so far defeating the true purpose of education. Each must "other" itself in order to be itself.

This view is here stressed because the history of our school curricula shows that this unreal duality is still to some extent believed in and practised. On the other hand the recent reforms in our curricula constitute a distinct and auspicious movement towards the resolution of the duality into a real unity. Consequently the present juncture is peculiarly suitable and propitious for a review of the respects in which the recognition of this unity has operated to produce splendid reforms; and also to estimate the extent to which the negation or neglect of it still engenders weakness or impedes the progress of education.

The curriculum is here and in this light considered because, to an extent far too little recognised, it embodies the conception by our people of the nature and functions of our present life and of its future development. It also sets out some of the means by which it is considered that each may be responded to or realised. If we held and were more fully conscious of this conception of a series of curricula, we would certainly give it the thought, may it even be said the respect or reverence, that its potentialities deserve.

Too often a curriculum is regarded as a list of necessary items of knowledge or training, the chief concern being whether this or that item should be included or excluded; as if the syllabus were literally a collection like the stock-in-trade of a shop. During these considerations the child is sometimes forgotten as if he were merely an elastic receptacle into which and

from which unlimited quantity and variety can be poured and extracted.

From the foundation of the New Zealand National System of Education in 1877 to the year 1902 the curricula for primary and secondary schools largely followed the old traditional type. They chiefly emphasised instruction as distinguished from education; and this involved a comparative exaltation of the material to be taught, as against a sequential method of training and the natural development of the child. Much that these curricula contained was mere mental lumber, rarely seen or heard of outside of a school. Children of tender years wrestled with processes and problems and obsolete tables of arithmetic unknown in commerce and industry. Chubby faced infants spoke glibly of primary, secondary, and tertiary colours and repeated Euclidian definitions of angles and figures. They drew triangles and squares and straight line figures, but rarely if ever revelled in the use of coloured chalks and free drawing which provide their most natural and fruitful means of self-expression. Similarly, History, Grammar, Geography and other subjects meant little more than the acquisition of masses of often incoherent information. Most of the children were dealing with thoughts and things many years ahead of their mental life and experience, and were generally considerably out of their depth in the sea of learning.

In the Secondary Schools and University Colleges there was the same, or an even worse slavish obedience to the tyranny of mechanical tradition and convention, tempered only by the greater ability of the older students to stand the strain of the process.

The task imposed on the teacher was therefore an arduous and often unpleasant one. He had annually to deliver his tale of bricks at an exacting and far too mechanical class examination. Therefore, however broad his ideas might be, he had at

one time or another to violate almost every principle or law of child-nature and child development. It was only to be expected that in consequence a rigid repressive discipline, the constant use of the strap, excessive "keeping in" and heavy burdens of "homework" were the order of the day.

It would be ungenerous and inaccurate to imply that this was the only side of the picture; but it is still necessary to remember the full force of these defects, because to some extent there are yet to be found relics of the same practice, and some advocates of similar kinds of instruction. There were, of course, many merits in that older system, and many splendid teachers and inspectors worked under it. All honour to those who, in the midst of such difficulties, taught and lived nobly and turned out thousands of splendid future men and women. These teachers and inspectors were the vanguard in their day. They worthily fulfilled their place in the evolution of education, and in many cases were the pioneers of the newer way that was to be. They "lured to brighter worlds and led the way." While, therefore, we may, in a generous spirit of research, seek to profit by an examination of the defects and failures of their day, we would all do well to emulate the spirit of devotion, self sacrifice, and zeal of our predecessors. Their work still lives; and they are honoured in name and memory by those who realise the debt they owe to their former teachers and inspectors. In spirit each might truly say, "I shall not all die."

Then, in the fulness of time, the year 1902 saw the introduction of the entirely reformed primary school syllabus which constitutes perhaps the most notable milestone in the history of Education in New Zealand since the foundation of the National System. This syllabus, with the conception of education it embodied and inspired, together with the many avenues of improvement which it opened up and advanced towards completion, was the work of the late Mr. George Hogben, M.A., then

Inspector General of Schools. No history of education in New Zealand would ever be worthy of production that did not pay wholehearted tribute to this great educational reformer.

The main principles and objective of this syllabus have not since been greatly altered. The conception of education it embodied has been the guiding spirit of most of the development of the past twenty five years and will continue in its general character to form the inspiration of reform for many years to come. If this be so it is profitable to note and evaluate the main principles that this syllabus expressed.

First and foremost it took chief account of the child's own life as of value and import to himself. The mode of life and thought of a child, the gradual unfolding of various interests and powers, the range and limitations of his environment and life-experience, were made the guiding factors in determining what was to be taught, when it should be introduced, how it should develop into higher stages, and above all how it should be presented to the child so as to call forth his own activities and lead him to find, develop, and express his own mind, powers, and personality.

Consequently there was no mere patching up or pruning of the old syllabus. There was a new creation dominated by a new spirit which soon altered the whole atmosphere of school life by giving to the child, and consequently to the teacher, the freedom demanded by nature. In the process, of course, much of the content of the old syllabus was discarded. Some of it was postponed to later stages of education. The symmetrical, logical order that appealed to the adult but which had neither place, meaning or usefulness in the life of a child was superseded. On the other hand much new matter was introduced which by the first hostile critics was described as "frills and fads"; but which is recognised by all educationists as the most valuable material with which to exercise and develop the young mind and to train

its activities. Apart from these changes of content, however, the essential change was in the spirit which ran through the whole conception of the education of the child.

A man may say, "When I was a child I spoke as a child, I felt as a child, I thought as a child; now that I am become a man I have put away childish things"; yet he should always remember that the speech, feelings, thoughts, and interests of a child are not merely childish; they are child-like. They are positively the only media through which the life of the child can fitly develop. Moreover it is only through the really child-like life, experience, and education that he truly becomes a man.

Another notable feature of the syllabus was the enunciation of the principle and the demand for its practice, that the teacher was to take a much less direct or dominating share while the child was given a far greater and more expressive part in the doing and thinking of class work. The child was to learn to think and act for himself under the wise yet not didactic or obstructive guidance of the teacher. A gardener does not "grow" his plants. They grow themselves after their kind; and all the gardener can do is to give favourable opportunity for natural growth; using only directive cultivation, stimulation, and restraint suitable to the nature of the plant. So the child must do his own learning. No analogy is perfect; but this one is strengthened in some respects by the fact that the child is not a plant but a human being with a life and future of his own; whose weal or woe will be his to carry in the days to come. The teacher therefore best plays his part when he enables the pupil more and more to take up the responsibility of his own thinking, feeling, and acting.

These main characteristics of the syllabus, with others not here mentioned, gave greater freedom to the teacher but made higher demands on his skill. Therefore one of the finest corollary benefits that followed was the institution, in 1906, of the four

Government Training Colleges for Teachers. It is almost impossible to estimate the present benefit and the future potentialities of these institutions. After all, the teacher is the determining, interpretive, and inspirational factor; and it is on his conception and use of the syllabus that the whole result of education depends.

The changes thus made in the objective of education together with the closely subsequent institution of free secondary education, have resulted in many changes of a like nature in the curricula and methods of Secondary Schools. This trend was accelerated by the introduction in 1905 of a system of District High Schools, and in 1906 of Technical High Schools.

Soon the effect of these two new types of school together with the wider training of teachers and the spread of the spirit of the new education became more and more noticeable in the work of Secondary Schools. Their curricula have been broadened by the inclusion of new subjects and in new treatment of old subjects, along with the provision and partial combination of the alternative academic, domestic science, commercial, and even agricultural and manual courses. At the same time the original purely technical education of the Technical Schools has been considerably modified since its inception, by a broadening towards what is called the cultural side.

The result is that to-day each of these two types of originally widely different and almost opposite forms of education has, with great advantage, assimilated some of the better features of the other. The time is therefore most opportune for the adoption of a better articulation of all post-primary education with primary education itself. Such provision should embody in the same schools for full time pupils up to at least sixteen years of age, all the courses of education suited to the various aptitudes and needs of the pupils with their differing requirements for the future.

It is urged that this can best be accomplished by the adoption of what is known as the Junior High School System. Unfortunately this name suggests that a new type of school would be required but this is not really essential. What I personally favour is the adoption of the Junior Secondary Course in all our centres of post-primary education. This would mean that a more gradual and natural transition from primary to secondary education would be provided for, at a stage some two years earlier than that at which the present unsatisfactory junction is made. It would provide the very best means by which the essential principles characterising the reformed syllabus and the new spirit in education above referred to could be fully matured and carried to their richest consummation. The present system largely frustrates the attainment of this most desirable end.

This is the more regrettable because the provision of a complete continuity from the lowest primary to the highest secondary stages, together with a full correlation of all the sub-courses of secondary education in the same school, would undoubtedly pave the way for a better co-ordination of secondary with University Education. Here again it is clear that the time is ripe for completing such a continuity. The spirit of the new education is at work in the University. This is evidenced by the manner in which the study of such subjects as Euclid (now Geometry), and Political Economy (now Economics), has been modernised. Science has become more experimental, and original research is encouraged. Modern languages are now spoken instead of merely being written and read. Theses from students are required in addition to study from books. In fact the elementary principle of "learning by doing" instead of learning only by instruction now permeates the teaching of almost every subject in the University. Further, the University has abandoned its adherence to a curriculum confined to the so-called cultural courses. It is now abundantly proved that

courses leading to degrees in Commerce, Law, Engineering, Domestic Science, Agriculture, Forestry, Journalism, and Architecture, can be studied and taught so as to combine a really cultural education with a training for the practical work of modern life.

If we crown these separately operating though congruent and cognate movements by the establishment of a complete and natural progression through all our curricula from the Kindergarten to the University, we should enthrone for ever our faith in the belief that the life experience and education of the child, the scholar, and the student, form not only a unity at any stage but a continuity throughout. We should no longer think in terms of subjects and courses and schools. We should be recognising that a child's mental life is a blend and an intricate correlation of all so called subjects; and that it is the same child who proceeds from the Kindergarten to the University. We should discard for ever the implication that he is a new specimen to be dealt with from divergent points of view by each operator who takes him into his laboratory. In a word, we should act on the conviction that the child is at once the problem of education and the solution of it.

Reverting therefore to the opening theme of this article, it may be claimed that both children and students in our schools and colleges are the agents who are being trained to discharge the present duties of life; but they are also the heralds of the ever advancing self realisation of the race. It is ours to assist, guide, and stimulate the child towards these ends and to make the conditions favourable for the exercise of his efforts; but we must ever remember that he is more than a pupil or a future worker in the world. He is a human personality with a destiny of his own.

It certainly requires a delicate adjustment to maintain a nice balance between freedom and control, self-activity and

guidance, and between a worthy self-realisation and an abuse of opportunity; but in harmony with the spirit of our times we should desire to train our young people from their early years to value and use rightly the freedom they enjoy and the liberty that every freeman desires. As one of our poets suggests:

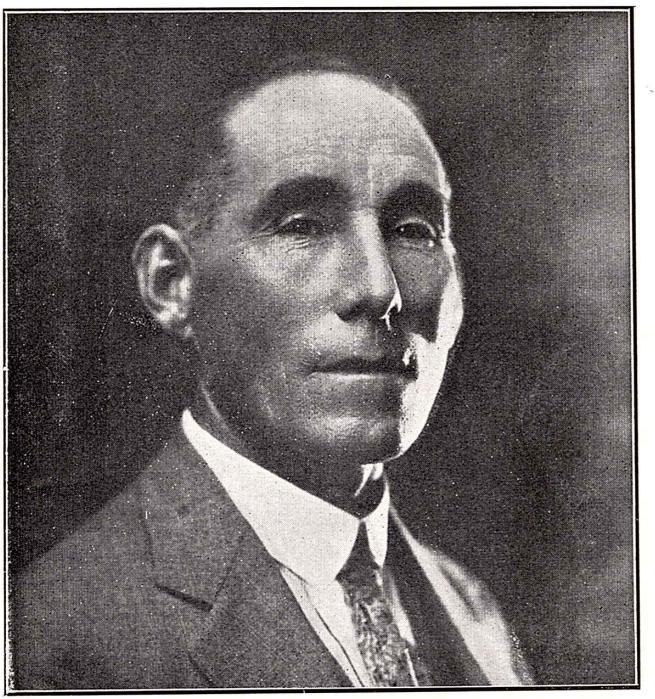
> "This is a man's problem to blend as he can,
> Flame of the spirit and dust of the earth;
> This is his problem of birth."

After all, Freedom and Liberty constitute the greatest human obligation that can be desired, assumed, or conferred.

JOHN CAUGHLEY.

Mr. John Caughley was born in Auckland in 1871 and was educated at the Alexander Street and Beresford Street Schools, Napier Main School, Canterbury University College, Victoria College, and Auckland University College. The M.A. degree was taken in 1905. Mr. Caughley served as a pupil teacher in the Hastings District School for five years, and was assistant master at the Napier Main School for eight years and a half. He remained for six years as headmaster of a country school at Kaikoura North, after which he came to Wellington as assistant in charge of the secondary classes at the Normal School and Training College, his duties including the instruction of the Training College students in science and secondary school methods. Four years later—in 1910—Mr. Caughley was appointed headmaster at the West Christchurch District High School, one of the most important schools in the Dominion. There were over seven hundred pupils in the primary department and two hundred in the secondary. At the beginning of 1916 Mr. Caughley succeeded Dr. W. J. Anderson as Assistant Director of Education upon the latter's promotion to the Directorship. Five years' experience in that work, coupled with his wide and varied experience as a teacher and his knowledge of education conditions, brought further promotion in 1921, when Mr. Caughley became Director. At various times he has occupied the highest official positions in the New Zealand Educational Institute, and he has always been known as a keen student of the progress of education in other parts of the world.

While he was Assistant Director of Education Mr. Caughley



JOHN CAUGHLEY

was well known for his work in connexion with the Institution of the Dominion Scheme of Grading of Teachers and for his interest in Teachers' Organizations.

As Director of Education Mr. Caughley's most notable achievement was in connexion with the introduction of a number of different types of experimental Junior High Schools. Eight of these schools were established during Mr. Caughley's regime and he personally visited various other localities in the Dominion and took the platform in support of the system.

Mr. Caughley completed 40 years in the Education service at the end of January, 1927, and retired from his position of Director on that date. He did not, however, cease from following an active life, but carried on his interests in several activities. At the Municipal Elections of 1927 Mr. Caughley was elected as a member of the Wellington City Council. His work on this Body was of a few months' duration only for towards the close of the year he was offered and accepted the position of Director of Education to the Fijian Government. Mr. Caughley left New Zealand in November, 1927, to take up his new duties and has been actively engaged in Fiji since his arrival there in re-organizing and revising the education system previously in force in the Islands.

SCHOOLBOY HOWLERS.

Ambiguous means having two wives and not being able to get rid of one of them.

Our forefathers are not living as long as they did.

Gladiators give out a great deal of heat.

Aladdin was a man who had a ring, and every time he rang, a guinness sprang up out of the ground.

Amongst the islands of the West Indies are the Pyjamas, noted for toilet sponges.

A Soviet is a cloth used by waiters in hotels.

Most bulls are harmless, but cows stare terribly.

Alias—A good man in the Bible.

Ammonia—The food of the gods.

Emolument—The headstone of a grave.

Tenacious—Ten acres of land.

The Middle Ages come in between antiquity and posterity.

Julius Caesar was really a very great man. He was a very great soldier, and wrote books for beginners in the Latin.

A school teacher wrote the following criticism on the edge of a scholar's report card:

"A good worker, but talks too much."

When the card was returned to the teacher, it bore, in addition to the father's signature, this report:

"You should hear her mother."

"Now, William," said his teacher, who was testing her scholar's knowledge of the proverbs; "let's see if you can finish this one: "Cleanliness is next to—what"?

"Impossible," was the quick response.

It was Friday afternoon, and almost time for school to be dismissed. The teacher was somewhat relaxed as well as the children, and to occupy the remaining time pleasantly, he proposed that he be asked questions. "If I fail to answer your questions," he said, "I will give the asker sixpence. Fire away, boys!"

One smart lad responded: "Please sir, why am I like a dead horse"? The schoolmaster thought hard. "H'm, that's a hard one," he said. "A dead horse—well, I give it up." The boy hesitated. "Please, sir, it's because I'm waiting for the tanner."

THE CHILD—PAST AND PRESENT TREATMENT.

F. H. Bakewell, M.A., Ex-Senior Inspector of Schools,
Wellington Education District.

When we consider the enormous development which has taken place in the sciences generally, the slow, halting progress made in education is indeed surprising. Some of the most modern ideas in regard to child training were admitted principles thousands of years ago. In early Greek times education of the citizen was free and it was compulsory, teachers, apparatus, buildings all being supplied at the cost of the State, and although in Rome the Greek ideal of beauty in mental, moral and physical culture was to some extent departed from in the sterner system of the Romans whose purpose was to train the citizen to be the law maker and the law administrator of the world, both systems had one common fundamental principle, viz., that the function of education was to train the child not in the interests of his own personal welfare and advancement, but in the interests and for the service of the State. But in spite of the examples of Greece and Rome over two thousand years had to pass before education became free and compulsory in Britain, and it is only now after the terrible devastations of the Great War that we realize that service to the community should be the great purpose of all educational effort. But whatever difference may have existed at all times in the ideals and methods of training the young, one constant factor has been common to all systems—the child himself, and it would naturally be expected that the study of the child, his nature, mind and character generally would have formed an essential part of any system of training. As a matter

of fact, however, until quite recent years the child, "qua" child, has all along been a negligible quantity in schemes of education. "If the teacher is to teach John Latin," says Professor Adams, "not only must he know Latin, but he must know John." But this is precisely what the teacher in the past did not know. That the child might and did have an entity of his own with his own angles of interest and thought appears never to have been a matter of educational concern.

Definite ideas there always were as to the subjects to be taught and the methods of teaching them, but as to the boy himself he was merely the "corpus vile" provided for the subjects and methods, or at best he was a lump of clay to be forcibly moulded or rather pounded into the particular shape that might meet with the approval of the authorities of the time. If his nature was considered at all, it was entirely from the adult point of view: he was looked upon as being a little adult. Rousseau was one of the first to point out that the child is not a little adult, or as Professor Adams more graphically puts it "He is not a little man any more than a tadpole is a little frog or a grub a little butterfly," the requirement of each stage demanding the treatment suitable and adapted to the needs of that stage.

Another constant factor in the past was the rod. The rod appears to have been in all ages the approved medium for imparting knowledge. Scriptural authority was not wanting for this, certainly not in the monastic period of teaching previous to the Renaissance. "Train up a child in the way he should go and when he is old he will not depart from it." (An excellent principle provided, of course, that this way is the proper way and leads to the proper goal.) "Spare the rod and spoil the child." "He that spareth the rod, hateth his son." The boy was evidently a real bad egg and admitted it himself when he could be heard singing with cheerful unconcern "My merit

is destruction, a child of wrath am I.'' One marvels with all this biblical quotation to the poor boy's disadvantage that teachers should have failed to grasp the inner meaning of another great teacher's words, for St. Paul says: ''When I was a child I spoke as a child, I thought as a child, I understood as a child.'' for herein lies the true and in fact the only real principle of child training. But they were flogging times—even ''the woman, the dog, and the walnut tree'' did not escape! The boy was allowed to have a nature certainly, but it was one which by the doctrine of original sin was endowed with certain evil instincts and activities which it was the special duty and function of those in authority over him to eliminate by a systematic course of flagellation administered at regular and frequent intervals. An old saying used to be that whenever you met a boy you should thrash him, for either he was in mischief, going into mischief, or just coming out of it. Poor fellow, he undoubtedly had a bad time of it. The ''offending Adam'' was in him and it had to be whipped out, and whipped out it certainly ought to have been if it was ever there, and if the records of the literature of the past can be trusted. Horace is acutely reminiscent of the flogging Orbilius—''Memini plagosum mihi parvo Orbilium dictare,'' and Martial deplores ''Ferulae tristes sceptra pedagogorum.'' Cowper says a teacher should be sparing of his smile, even to the well-natured Goldsmith—''a man severe he was''—and so on down to the flogging schoolmasters of the days of Thackeray and Dickens. Even after the passing of the flagellating period the plight of the boy from an educational point of view was not much better. Examination ordeals had more terrors for some natures than the rod. Though no longer full of devils, the boy was held to be full of ''emptiness,'' and the business of the Educator was to fill this empty vessel to its utmost limit with facts and useful knowledge, or what passed for useful knowledge with the Gradgrinds of the day, crammed in quite irrespective of the

child's power of mental digestion and assimilation. The mischief of the system with its natural complement of rigid individual examination was further aggravated in Britain by the pernicious policy of "payment by results," the amount of the teacher's salary being mainly determined by the number of his "passes." The natural result was the creation of totally false ideals of education. Marks and passes became the aim of all educational endeavour. The true interests of the child, the proper development of his mind and character were subordinated to examination requirements. The tendency was to create a monotonous level of attainment on certain special lines of knowledge. All had to go through the same mill. The foot was planed down to fit the boot. The fitting of square pegs into round holes was not the only evil of the system; worse evils, as Ballard says, were the fitting of big pegs into small holes and the fitting of very small pegs into large ones. The Educational horizon was narrowed to the limits of the class room, and the prescribed examination subjects. Some there were who might protest, but "it was hard to kick against the pricks," and in the great majority of cases the effort of teacher and inspector was "like the dyer's hand subdued to what it worked in."

I well remember the first conference of School Inspectors held somewhere in the eighties of the last century. Great were the expectations of the teachers throughout the Colony. The Educational mountains were in labour, and surely the solution of some of our great problems would be the outcome. But alas! after a week's discussion the chief resolutions, so far as I can recollect, were all concerned with methods of conducting examinations—directions as to the length of the passage to be read, limitation of the number of lines in composition to 8, 10, 12 and 14, according to the standard, 3 sums out of 5 to constitute a pass in Arithmetic and more than 3 mistakes to constitute a failure in the spelling test. Evidently the decision of men, if

not "trium litterarum," certainly "trium verborum." Even to me, a young and inexperienced teacher, it seemed a lamentable misuse of time and energy to see a highly paid examiner spending a whole day marking and scheduling the written work of a St. 1 class in a large school, such work consisting of a few one syllable words for spelling and addition sums of three lines of three figures each and multiplication of three figures up to five times, work that the most junior pupil teacher was quite competent to do. Occasionally the monotony would be relieved by some irrepressible juvenile humorist for whom even the inspector's visit had no terrors. At one time there existed what were known as strong and weak passes, the former being a pass in all subjects and the latter a failure in one or more of the minor subjects only. Many years ago, after an inspection visit, I was walking behind two small boys when I heard one say excitedly "I passed—weak—how did you do"? "Yah!" said the other, "I failed—strong." Knowing both boys as I did I had little doubt in my mind as to which would be the more successful in making his way in the world. Regulations as to the percentage of marks qualifying for a pass were precise and unmistakable, and there was but little scope for getting behind them, but now and then, perhaps, an inspector whose moral fibre was not of the strongest, would at least stretch them to the utmost limit.

I remember one case especially. A candidate for a free place, though he had not failed in any of his subjects, was still 15 marks short of the required total. I had him brought up before me, a fine, well developed lad physically, standing firmly on both feet, intelligent face, mouth, and chin especially good, any one would have been proud of such a boy. I wanted to pass him but I could not see my way to increase the marks in any of his subjects. The teacher being asked if he could say anything for him—said the boy showed distinct intelligence in his ordinary

class work, but that he never seemed to do himself justice at a formal written examination, otherwise his record was excellent. He had been given complete charge of the school grounds and outside buildings, was captain of the cricket and football teams and was a splendid influence in the school generally. As I said before, I wanted to pass him, but regulations were regulations and I was noted for my scrupulous regard for them—"and" went on the teacher, "only last week he won a 100 yards swimming competition at the Te Aro Baths, competing with adults too, but he drew away with ease from all competitors"—"Drew with ease"! Here was my chance, "Give him 15 more marks for drawing." Now had it not been for this quite casual piece of information of the teacher's, I should not have been able to grant a certificate and at the same time keep rigidly to the requirements of the regulations—I was always a great advocate of swimming. But really, had the boy been put to the intelligence testing methods of to-day his mental age would probably have been found to be at least a year in advance of his time age. The boy was quite a success at his college, passed the Public Service Entrance Examinations and did good service in the war as private and commissioned officer.

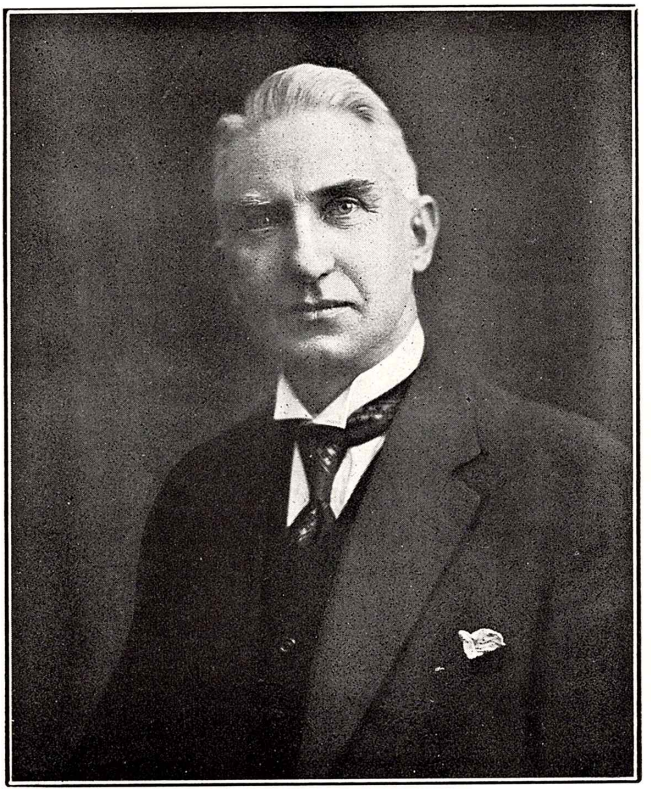
In my opinion the great weakness apparent in the older systems was that they developed too much the receptive side of the child and attached undue weight to the mere faculty of memory. There was little scope for the boy of original thought or for one with a practical and inquiring mind, who made things and had, say, an Engineering or Science bent. One example of such a boy I remember well. I was doing my itinerary on a motor bicycle—at least I was "on" my itinerary for I may say I have no great genius for machinery, at least not beyond a certain stage; I understand for instance, thoroughly, the mechanism of an egg beater but put in another wheel and I am lost. That motor cycle I honestly believe took years off my life.

I had no relief from anxiety on account of its numerous vagaries till I am thankful to say it finished its career at the bottom of a deep gully in the backblocks—but that is by the way. To return to the story. I had managed to get within about half a mile of the school I was visiting when the machine suddenly stopped—not only would it not go of itself, but it refused to let me wheel it, in fact the wheels would not go round. While I was tinkering with it in a hopelessly inadequate manner, a small boy, of about 12 years of age, appeared on the scene. "What's the matter?" "Matter enough" said I, "the machine won't go, I don't know what is wrong with it. There is always something the matter with the wretched thing." "Why," said the boy, "that's a Triumph and this year's model too. There can't be much the matter with a machine like that—Petrol all right? How's the carburetter? Let me look at the magneto"—mechanical knowledge oozed from the boy's every pore. He went over that machine with an understanding and a sympathy which absolutely humiliated me. In five minutes it was purring away like the proverbial cat that swallowed the canary. Still I was not inclined to trust it, and said that I would now be able to trundle it along to the school, but the boy woudn't hear of it. Quite against my own wishes and inclination he practically ordered me into the saddle and started me off. During the course of the inspection some really bad work came under my notice, bad writing and spelling mainly. The teacher was asked for some explanation "Oh," she said, "I can do nothing with that boy. He takes no interest in his lessons and is most difficult to manage. Stand up Jack Smith!" and behold my friend of the morning stood up. "Yes," went on the teacher, "he is quite hopeless, in fact (this *sotto voce,* but still loud enough for the boy to hear), I don't think he is quite 'all there.' " Jack Smith and I gazed at each other and I detected an unmistakable quiver on his right eyelid. It was most improper on my part I know but for the life of me

I could not help a responsive droop from mine. Jack Smith was evidently one of the square pegs that refused to be whittled down.

Though children of outstanding merit have been able to rise superior to methods of teaching, however bad, still the failure of the academic prize and scholarship winners to make good in after life is a not uncommon occurrence, and to this is largely due the lack of sympathy and even the hostility of successful business men in regard to educational matters. They have succeeded in life without educational advantages, others with these advantages have failed. This lack of public sympathy has in the past been a great handicap to educational advancement and it exists even to-day. Not three months ago the Chairman of the Chamber of Commerce in one of the largest manufacturing towns in the north of England was bold enough to say that he did not know a single instance of a man in charge of large works who had not left school before he was fourteen, the inference of course being that the qualities necessary for management—sense of responsibility, understanding, power of control, and adjustment so far from being developed were really stunted in the schools. It should not be possible for such a statement to be made to-day. Comparison is too often made between the boy of yesterday and the boy of to-day. How often has not the teacher to listen to complaints from the father as to the shortcomings educationally and otherwise of his son Bill who, he says, compares most unfavourably with what he himself was as a boy. I used to notice that as a rule complaints came from the father, not from the mother—the latter probably having a lively idea of the herditary source of most of Bill's failings. Now I feel specially qualified to speak with authority on this point. I was myself taught with Bill's grandfather. I taught his father and I have taught and examined Bill—the three periods of experience totalling not far off 70 years, and I have no hesitation in saying

that Bill is the best of the three. The boy and girl of to-day have advantages unknown to children of the past. In the first place they are being taught in a more rational manner, mass and gallery instruction have gone by the board, they are receiving more individual attention; school workshops and science laboratories to-day give opportunity and scope to thousands of children who in the old days would have had their natural abilities starved. Physical instruction, medical and dental inspection, organized outdoor games and sports, Boy Scout and Girl Guide organizations, all combine to make them healthier in both mind and body. A great deal has yet to be done but we must not blind our eyes to the great reforms and improvements that have already been made. The children are all right if we but do our duty towards them, and when I see them at cheerful work in their splendid modern schools, or hear their happy voices in the school grounds, and when I think of wretched class prejudices and hostilities, conflicts between labour and capital, and, to say the least of it, the extremely moderate success we adults make of running the social system, I say thank God for the children, for they are the hope for better things in the future.



T. B. STRONG

T. B. STRONG.

Mr. T. B. Strong was born in London in 1871, and went as a child with his parents to Waimate, where his early education was obtained. He graduated B.A. at the Otago University, and later took his M.A. and B.Sc. degrees. His initial appointment was that of pupil teacher at the Waimate District High School, and he served in several capacities as a teacher under the South Canterbury Education Board. After spending a year in Gisborne Mr. Strong, in 1902, took charge of the newly-established secondary department of the Wanganui District High School, and from that position he was appointed in 1904 inspector of schools under the Wanganui Education Board. In 1915 Mr. Strong was appointed senior inspector in charge of the Wanganui Education district, and in 1920, when the new position of Chief Inspector of Primary Schools for New Zealand was created, he was selected to fill it. On October 11th last Mr. Strong was appointed Assistant Director of Education following Dr. Marsden's selection as first Secretary of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research.

Mr. Strong has had wide experience in administrative work in education, and he has worked as a teacher and organiser in all three branches of the service. As inspector and organizer in the Wanganui district he was the first to introduce the now well known Montessori system of instruction, and was instrumental in having education officers sent abroad for experience in that new phase of teaching work. He was also responsible for the organizing teacher system, which met with the approval of farmers all over the Dominion, and has been adopted by the

Department. Mr. Strong was associated with the initiation and development of vocational training in agriculture, one of the reforms introduced in recent years. Since he entered the Department's service he has introduced and organized the system of instruction by correspondence. Other reforms with which Mr. Strong has been directly concerned are the organization of the system of exchange of teachers the introduction and organization of the system of special classes for sub-normal children; the introduction of the system of supplementary model schools for the training of country teachers; the organization of the present method of dealing with teachers' appeals against classification of grading; and the introduction of more modern methods of inspection and examination in primary schools. He also set on foot the "Education Gazette."

THE EDUCATION OF THE MAORI.

W. W. Bird, M.A., Chief Inspector of Primary Schools, and ex-Senior Inspector of Native Schools.

In the early stages of Maori education Native schools as we now know them did not exist. The work of educating the Maori was undertaken by the various church authorities, and both the Imperial Government and the Colonial Legislature contributed generously to afford the Maoris all the education, both literary and practical, that they were competent to receive. Nor were the Maoris themselves slow to render assistance, both in endowing with land and giving their personal assistance to the schools established in their districts. The most important of these endowments held in trust by various Church authorities constitute to-day very valuable sources of income which are generally applied to the purpose for which the trust was constituted.

The system of education pursued from the foundation of the colony was that of imparting instruction to the Maoris in their own language in establishments where large numbers congregated, and where they were not only educated but housed, clothed and fed. It is noteworthy that a similar system still obtains in some of the islands of the Pacific, where the missionary societies carry out a useful, if not modern scheme of education. These establishments were necessarily large and expensive, some of them containing more than 100 natives, and the cost of maintenance was considerable. The schools were established in accordance with the provisions of the Native Schools Act, 1858, by authority of which a grant of £7,000 per annum for a term of seven years was made in aid of schools for the education of the aboriginal race, whether children or adults. Instruction in

the English language, and in the ordinary subjects of primary education and in industrial training, formed a necessary part of the system pursued in every school which received Government aid. The scheme, however, was unsound in many respects, but failed principally owing to its becoming evident in the course of time that any gain which might possibly follow through the dissociation of the children from their parents was more than counterbalanced by the loss of civilizing influence which the whole people would have received from their constant observation of the influence and effect of education on their children whilst pupils in schools established in their own villages. It followed, therefore, that after a few years this system broke down entirely.

In 1867 the Native Schools Amendment Act was passed, but before it could be brought into operation the North Island was again disturbed by war, and it was not until 1871 that any further effort could be made to construct a workable system of education for the country. The objects desired by the Government in passing the Native Schools Amendment Act were as follows:—Firstly, the etablishment of village schools wherever sufficient native population and other circumstances rendered it possible. Secondly, the instruction of the natives in the English language only, except in cases where the location of an English teacher might be found impossible. Thirdly, the working of the village schools through the agency of the Maoris themselves associated with and aided by such Europeans as might be willing to work with them on School Committees. Fourthly, the contribution by the natives of such proportion of the expense of school buildings and schoolmasters' salary as might be in each case agreed upon. Fifthly, the careful inspection and supervision of all schools receiving Government aid.

Under this Act Lieutenant-Colonel A. A. Russell, the father of the late Sir William Russell, was appointed by the Native

Minister, the late Sir Donald Maclean, to be the first Inspector of Native Schools, and the information relating to the earlier history of the schools is gathered from his reports. Under this regime our oldest native schools were established, and in the records of the Department are to be found the names of the fathers whose sons and grandsons to-day, by their loyal support and hearty appreciation of the schools, show that the seed then planted has borne generous fruit. The total amount expended on Maori education during the year 1874 was £12,000; the total cost of erecting four schools with residences attached amounted to £710. There were no fixed standards of education, every master teaching what he thought best. The syllabus of instruction in vogue appears to have been very simple, and necessarily so, English, writing, reading, spelling and geography. Some of the best Maori scholars of the day contributed in the preparation of school books, notably Sir William Martin (the Chief Justice), Bishop Williams, and the Rev. W. Colenso. Specimens of these books are now somewhat rare, but it is interesting to note that even so long ago the authors had the idea of teaching on phonic principles. The accommodation was more or less unsatisfactory, the equipment poor and unsuitable, and in many cases the attendance was apparently irregular. But in spite of such difficulties and shortcomings the influence of the schools was undoubted, and indeed it would be very difficult to overrate their value to the country people and their effect as agencies of civilization. The report of the District Inspector in the Hokianga district may be quoted in this connexion. "It is an undoubted fact that the native village schools are working great good amongst the Maoris in the North, and doing much to break down the barrier which has hitherto stood between the two races. As a proof of which I may point out the very orderly and law-abiding conduct of the North Island natives in comparison with that of the more ignorant South Island tribes. This is the more noticeable during the last eight or nine years, during

which period no serious trouble of any kind has occurred, and when it is remembered that the numbers of the Rarawa and Ngapuhi natives exceed 7000, it is well worthy of consideration. I believe that this state of things is in a great measure to be attributed to the establishment of native schools, as they have done much to give the Maoris a better knowledge of our manners and customs than they have had hitherto, and which they duly appreciate and are in many ways endeavouring to imitate.''

The control of the native schools was transferred from the Native Department to the Education Department in the year 1879, and with this transfer came the first definite arrangement of a curriculum. The Native Schools Act of 1880 provided for the establishment of schools, the appointment of teachers, the conduct of the schools, and native schools standards of education. Of these there were four, the subjects of instruction being: English, reading, writing, spelling, geography, arithmetic, and sewing for girls. The teachers were classified, and a scheme was drawn up for payment of salaries which ranged from £80 to £225 per annum. The new Inspector of Native Schools was Mr. James H. Pope, and the following passage from one of his reports shows how he viewed the work that had already been done. ''It should be remembered that the problem to be dealt with was almost entirely new. It was to bring an untutored but intelligent and high-spirited people into line with our civilization, and by placing in Maori settlements European school buildings and European families to serve as teachers, especially as exemplars of a new and more desirable mode of life. This admirable ideal, remarkable alike for its thorough-going effectiveness and its simplicity, was fully operative when the Education Department took over the native schools, and in any statement of the advances made subsequently, it is only right to acknowledge (1) that the leading idea which governs the native school work was already in full operation when we took the schools over, and (2) that in face of the remarkable and previously unknown difficulties

OPEN AIR CLASS-ROOM, FENDALTON

the native school authorities had managed to make their schools a going concern and to get useful work done by them.''

For twenty-five years Mr. Pope was the central figure in Maori education, and it was through him and his untiring labours and devotion to duty as well as his deep-seated love for the race that so many young Maoris received the blessing of education. Himself a trained teacher of long experience, a scholar of wide learning, a philosopher, and a man of the highest moral worth, Mr. Pope threw himself into the work with all the energy and mental vigour at his command. Hardships and difficulties and discomforts of all kinds were no obstacles to him, and the Maoris, who quickly recognize a man, soon came to regard him as a father. It is probably due to his personality that from the time of his appointment there was a gradual awakening in the interest shown in education by the Maori people, and the attendance at the schools, a sure indication of such interest, began to increase rapidly. When he retired in 1903 full of years and honour, he left behind him a monument more lasting than brass. The fifty schools, some of which appeared to have been built on the principle that any kind of structure that would keep out the rain and give partial shelter from the wind and sun would do for a native school, had given place to 100 well constructed buildings, the thousand or so children whom he found on his taking up duty had increased to nearly four thousand, and some of the small boys who with books and slates had confronted him in the village schools dressed for examination purposes in blue coats with brass buttons, had changed the books and slates for the diploma, and the blue coat for the gown of the graduate of the University of New Zealand. Mr. Pope's memory is still cherished by the Maori people, and for many years the Inspector of Native Schools bore his name as a cognomen—which became the current term for inspector—Te Popi. For more than eighteen years Mr. Pope's efforts were ably seconded by his colleague, Mr. H. B. Kirk, now Professor of Biology of Victoria University College,

Wellington, whose interest in the cause of native education has not been in any degree lessened by his removal from his former sphere of action.

The conditions laid down so long ago with regard to the establishment of native schools are still in force. The Maoris must be prepared to contribute material help, and this they do by providing free of cost to the Government a suitable site of at least four or five acres of land. In many places they have exceeded these requirements, and larger sites are not uncommon. Where their circumstances will allow it they also contribute a substantial sum of money towards the erection of the buildings. Thus at Tokomaru Bay, on the East Coast, when the old school which had served since 1872 was destroyed by fire, they provided £500 towards the erection of the new building. At Manutahi, in addition to a gift of five acres of excellent land they paid into the Public Account £300 towards the cost of the new school, and the late Numia Kereru, the leading chief of the Tuhoe people, had conveyed to the Government a block of 2500 acres of land as a subsidy for native school purposes.

No one who has not had the opportunity of seeing a remote native settlement prior to the establishment of the school can realize what a remarkable change in the community is wrought by it in a comparatively short time. The writer well remembers his first visit to the heart of the Urewera country some twenty-five years ago. On arriving at nightfall he was taken to the meetinghouse, where the whole people were assembled. They offered as much hospitality as lay in their power, but only part of it could be accepted. Their attitude was generally friendly, but the conditions were certainly far from inviting. In the morning when the children were to be seen in order that the number available might be duly ascertained it was difficult to find them. Quite unaccustomed to the Pakeha, many of them had disappeared, hiding in the scrub and bush, while those who were about dropped into cover like partridges. On being brought

forward by their parents they screamed with terror at the sight of a white face. They were, in short, wild children of the bush, unkempt, unclad. In this particular case the Maoris themselves provided a school, splitting the trees and erecting a two-roomed school and a three-roomed residence, at no cost to the Government except for the windows and nails, which then were difficult to procure. A visit paid some years after the school had been established, revealed an entirely new order of things. The children came forward without hesitation, friendly and smiling. They were clean in person and in dress, could talk fairly well in English, and were well-mannered and obliging. Not only that, but the parents themselves had in the meantime provided better houses and had better food. The native school offers to the Maori children in such a locality a pleasing asylum from the life of the kainga, and they are so much attached to it that they look on single holidays as entirely objectional. It is astonishing, too, how during the closing of a school the children deteriorate, and there is no doubt that they appreciate this themselves, and look forward with eagerness to the re-opening day.

The local supervision of the school is entrusted in a measure to a committee of the parents and guardians. They have no executive power, nor are they consulted in the choice of teachers, but they are required to take an interest in the school, to see that the attendance is maintained, and that provision is made for warming and cleaning. On the whole they do very useful work, and in many cases they contribute very largely to the welfare of the school.

Nothing succeeds with the Maori like success, and an efficient school is sure to receive the support not only of the committee, but of all the parents. No doubt a spirit of rivalry stimulates their efforts in many instances. Thus, when the committee of one school raised by a concert the sum of £100 towards fencing and ground improvements generally, and received some assistance from the Department, the committee of a neighbouring school,

not to be outdone, provided a splendid fence round the whole of their glebe without calling on the Government for anything.

It was the custom for many years, and no doubt the fashion still exists, for the committee to attend on the occasion of the school examination. Usually the parents also assembled in full force, and indeed there were not a few cases in which they learned from successive years of observation what was to be expected from the children in the various classes. At the close of the day's work the results of the examination were discussed, and the teacher congratulated on the successes or charged with inefficiency if failure was evident. Occasionally it required no little tact on the part of the inspector to allay their dissatisfaction in the latter case. In a school in the North a teacher—an Englishman by birth, and quite successful in his work—was followed by a Scotchman not so efficient. The chairman of the School Committee apparently gauged the weakness of the school and complained that the present teacher was not satisfactory, as he had *reo ke*—a foreign accent. It had to be explained to his satisfaction that after all it is only a short distance from Manchester to Edinburgh on a small scale map, and that he, himself, might be regarded as a foreigner if he visited Wanganui. The children who distinguished themselves before the inspector and parents received the congratulations of the people, who occasionally withheld a meal until they saw the degree of success that had been achieved. "It is no use," they said, "wasting food on children who are not worth it," and a good examination result meant that "the bags of flour had been paid for."

For many years there was no provision for compelling attendance in native schools, the matter being left, as above stated, in the hands of the committee. It must be confessed, however, that the principal factor in the attendance was the personality of the teacher. Nothing would prevent a Maori child from going to

school if he felt it was worth going to. In one place near the East Cape certain children attending school had to cross a dangerous river. In times of flood the elder girl would swim across, the two younger ones supporting themselves on her shoulders. When this was forbidden the girl pitched a tent inside the school grounds below the face of an overhanging cliff and camped there with her charges. One night, during a heavy downpour, the stream of water coming down the hillside swept through the tent and rendered it not only uninhabitable, but probably unsafe. The girl was therefore allowed to sleep in the porch of the school.

In the far north of New Zealand, where the people lead a more or less nomadic life on the gum fields, children walked daily ten miles each way to school, completing, in some cases, 120 miles a week, because the inspection took place on Saturday. There could, of course, be no compulsion in such circumstances, and the regular attendance was a direct tribute to the efficiency of the teachers.

Occasionally the School Committee exercised some authority in securing regular attendance. To this end they made "laws" of their own, which preceded the more formal regulations of the department. Thus at the writer's visit to a northern school the committee submitted to him for approval their "laws" for compulsory attendance as follows:—(1) Every child who does not attend school regularly shall be fined 2/- for each occasion on which he is absent; (2) if, after being fined, he attends regularly, the fine shall be remitted to him at the end of the year; (3) if, after being fined, he fails to attend regularly, the amount collected shall be divided amongst those children who have attended regularly.

This worked splendidly for several years, and not even the teacher could send a boy on half-a-day's journey to the nearest store without having to pay the fine. Not

only that, but the example thus afforded served as a healthy warning to the other schools in the district, and it only required a wave of the blue notice forms and the chink of the florins in the writer's pocket to convince them that they, too, would be fined for negligence in sending their children to school. Unfortunately, through an error in the Department, the absentee notice was printed on white instead of blue paper, and for a time compulsory attendance was hardly enforceable, white paper having no virtue in the eye of the law.

In accordance with the progress of the schools the syllabus of instruction has been from time to time revised, and now corresponds in all material respects to that prescribed for the ordinary primary public schools. And while in the earlier days it was considered a great feat to have a child who had completed the requirements of the 4th standard, a certificate of proficiency is now the common attainment in view. The methods of instruction, except in so far as they may be specially modified to suit the requirements of children who speak at home a language other than English, follow approved modern lines, the present inspectors, Mr. J. Porteous, M.A., and Mr. J. Henderson, M.A., being both experienced primary school teachers. The cardinal subject of the school curriculum is, of course, English, and this has been taught for more than twenty-five years on what is known as the direct method. It may be necessary to state that the Maori language is not used in native schools, definite lessons in English being given from the earliest stages. It is astonishing to find the progress made by Maori pupils in our language. This becomes most evident at the end of the secondary school course, where the young Maori has acquired a love for reading and for literature to a very admirable degree. They are capable of appreciating the best of our literature in a manner quite equal to that of the European, and there have been some excellent translations of our standard authors, including

Shakespeare, Burns and Goldsmith, that reveal a very subtle insight into the beauties of our language.

The difficulties arising from isolation and lack of proper communication which existed in the old days are considerably lessened by the opening up of the country and the introduction of better means of locomotion, and thus the schools are brought closer into touch with European civilization. One could tell many instances of hardship and privation experienced by both teachers and inspectors in the course of their work. These, happily, are rapidly becoming things of the past. Unlike the European school, the sooner the native school attains perfection the sooner its purpose is fulfilled, and the time will come when the native school will cease to have a separate existence, except for a certain amount of racial prejudice which still makes it necessary that, in order to secure the rights of the Maori children to education, the schools must remain under the control of the Department.

In regard to higher education, it should be stated that the Department has no secondary schools of its own establishment. Advantage is taken of schools conducted by the authorities of various religious denominations who derive the funds for supporting the schools from lands handed to them in trust as stated above. Thus Te Aute College, and St. Stephen's School, Parnell, for boys, Hukarere and St. Joseph's School, for girls, were founded, and thus they are maintained to this day, the Government subsidizing them by offering free places to pupils who have qualified for proficiency certificates, or otherwise.

Persons who are interested in native school work are cordially invited to visit at any time such schools as may be within their reach. They will find that the condition of the schools with regard to cleanliness will compare very favourably indeed with that of the ordinary country school under the jurisdiction of the Board. It must be borne in mind that the cleaning of the school

is usually performed by the children, who take a personal pride in their work, and, indeed, carry out their duties with much eagerness.

A congress of representative Maoris and others interested in and connected with Maori work generally was held in Wellington some years ago. It was attended by leading men from all parts of New Zealand from the North Cape to the Bluff. Various resolutions affecting the education of Maoris were passed, among them the following: "That this congress recognizing that education is one of the greatest factors in the uplifting of the Maori race, wishes to express to the Native Schools Department, and throught it to the native school teachers and inspectors, its high appreciation of and confidence in the work instituted and being carried out by the Department." From all who are connected with native school work an amount of self-sacrifice not apparent to the casual observer is demanded, and it should be a source of considerable gratification to all concerned to know that their efforts meet with the cordial approval of those who are in the best position to judge, and whose interests are most closely affected.

THE EXPANSION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

E. J. PARR, M.A., B.Sc., Senior Inspector of Secondary Schools.

In the early days of the Colony secondary education was wholly dependent on the enterprize of private individuals or of religious bodies, though it was not long before the early administrators and the Provincial Councils recognized the desirability of setting aside endowments in land for the establishment and maintenance of institutions of higher learning. Sir George Grey, for example, as early as 1850 made substantial provision for the foundation of a College and Grammar School in Auckland, though it was not till 1869 that a Grammar School was actually opened in temporary premises (the old immigration barracks).

The value of most of these endowments was, however, prospective rather than immediate and in the majority of cases the actual institution of a school and the erection of the necessary buildings had to be postponed for many years. For example the Wanganui Industrial School (now the Collegiate school) was endowed in 1852, but twenty-six years later it had only two classrooms, but recently erected, and only 36 pupils. Some of the schools found great difficulty in maintaining themselves; three years after its opening the Auckland Grammar School, in order to save itself from extinction, was forced to amalgamate with the High School, a private institution. Occasionally grants of money were made by the Provincial Governments to aid the struggling schools; for example Christ's College Grammar School, which had opened as a church school in Lyttelton early in 1851, was so helped when the school was

established in its present quarters in 1855. Of the existing recognized secondary schools Christ's College can undoubtedly claim pride of place as the oldest in the Dominion. It is impossible after the lapse of so many years to discover how many "academies" and "grammar schools" flourished and had their little day in the Provincial era, but a report on Education in Canterbury in 1863 gives us an interesting insight into the situation in that Province. There were at that time besides the three public superior schools—Christ's college grammar school, the Christchurch Academy (1858-73), and the Lyttelton Presbyterian High School (1860-69) as many as ten private schools also described as superior. How large or how small these private schools were the records do not state but we are informed that the 91 pupils at the Academy were housed in a single classroom 37 by 17½ feet.

It is abundantly evident that before the Department came into existence not much progress had been made in secondary education. Nelson College had been opened in 1858, the Otago Boys' High School in 1863 and Wellington College in 1868, but there were in 1877 only twelve public endowed secondary schools and of these, three closed down within the next few years.

The two principal Acts of 1877 were concerned mainly with the organization of primary instruction and took practically no cognizance of secondary schools or of their courses of instruction; nor was there any provision made for their inspection. Two important advantages, however, were obtained; one-fourth of all educational reserves was set apart specially as an endowment for secondary education and the secondary schools were not placed under the control of Education Boards. In at least one instance serious trouble had arisen previously from the clash of conflicting interests between a secondary school and the controlling Education Board.

The following year (1878)—the first year of the Department's existence—witnessed remarkable progress in the organization of secondary education, no fewer than ten new High Schools being established by separate Acts of Parliament. The majority of these were actually opened within the next two years and by 1885 there were twenty-one public secondary schools in operation. During the ensuing eighteen years there was little expansion; from public speeches of the day and from newspaper correspondence it is gathered that the secondary schools of that period were not popular; proposals made in Parliament to aid them met with opposition and the feeling was prevalent that High Schools were schools for the rich and that the instruction given in them was not in keeping with the needs of the Colony. There was undoubtedly a decided lack of organization in the secondary school system, if system it could be called. Though the Inspector-General had authority to inspect most of the schools, the Department had no direct control over them; it could not prescribe their courses of study nor even provide that their courses should stand in proper relation to that of the primary schools and the University. More attention was paid to the literary side than to the scientific, technical instruction was almost entirely ignored. It is interesting to read, for example, in an educational journal of 1881 that "classes in Science are about to be started in Nelson College; the old bathroom and boothouse are being fitted up as a laboratory." Again, the standard of the schools was undoubtedly lowered by the admission of a large number of children doing purely elementary work. So straitened financially, however, were most of the schools that without the revenue derived from these younger pupils it would have been impossible to keep the fees for the seniors down to a reasonable level. The time was undoubtedly ripe for a controlling authority to step in and organize a considered scheme of

secondary education and, at the same time, to provide the funds that an efficient system would undoubtedly require.

With Mr. Seddon as Minister and Mr. Hogben as Inspector-General events moved rapidly. At the close of 1902 provision was made by Regulations for free tuition of qualified pupils in such schools as were willing to accept the scheme. In the following year a generous system of National Scholarships was established for the benefit of children of limited means. (The restriction as to means was removed in 1910). The Secondary Schools Act of 1903—an epoch making statute—forbade the admission, except into a self-supporting lower department, of any pupil with a lower status than a standard V. pass; it required every endowed school to submit for Ministerial approval a scheme defining its curriculum and the manner of its control, declared every secondary school open to inspection, and made provision for free places in all endowed secondary schools with an adequate system of capitation grants for their cost. The magnitude of the financial burden involved by the change may be gathered from the Inspector-General's statement that whereas the scholarship grants paid to the Education Boards (£8424) represented practically the total government expenditure on secondary education in 1900 the amount spent in 1905 on scholarships and on capitation for free pupils in both secondary and district high schools would be not less than £42,000, not including capitation grants for manual instruction and grants for additional classrooms and laboratories.

In 1908 the courses to be followed by free pupils were much more specifically defined; at least one science or a manual subject had to be included, though it was not till 1914 that all free place girls were required to learn Home Science. The system of "units" was also introduced in this year and senior free places were instituted (as distinct from junior). The 1914 Act raised the standard of admission still further by requiring that all entrants should have at least a standard VI. com-

petency certificate. Cognizance was also taken for the first time of private secondary schools and provision made for their registration and inspection. The number of such registered schools has risen in the interval to 42 with about 3000 pupils. In 1920 the Department took the last step in assuming full financial responsibility for public secondary education; the Act of that year empowered regulations prescribing the staffing and salaries in secondary schools, standardized tuition fees, and provided for the payment of incidental allowances to the Boards of Governors.

The two latest developments in secondary education have been in the direction of enlarging the opportunities for instruction in manual and craft work in both boys' and girls' schools, and secondly, of obtaining a more effectual gradation between the primary and secondary school courses. As a solution of the latter problem the junior High School system was tentatively adopted in 1924 and there are now in operation eight junior schools of four different types. It is interesting to note that the Royal Commission of 1879-80 on University and Secondary Education, recommended that the larger primary schools not in the neighbourhood of secondary schools, should be constituted "Middle Schools" so that secondary instruction might be imparted in them to pupils above the IVth standard. The recommendation was made solely with a view to removing the chaos arising in secondary schools from the admission of pupils at very diverse stages of attainment. The standardization of the entrance qualification in 1903 removed the evil and the recommendation was lost sight of in subsequent years.

So far as the lack of encouragement of manual work in the past is concerned it is fair to observe that, whilst the majority of secondary schools admittedly modelled their programmes too closely on those of the mid-Victorian English public schools, yet several had already introduced such subjects as drawing and woodwork into their curricula in the early eighties.

Various branches of experimental and natural science were taught in most of them, but in general the cramped financial position of the Boards precluded the erection and equipment of suitable laboratories or workshops.

It would be unjust, even in such a brief sketch of the history of secondary education as this is, to omit all reference to the worthy part that has been played by the District High Schools, especially in the seventies and eighties. Many of these institutions did exceptionally good work and those in Otago especially maintained a very high standard of efficiency for many years. In 1878 there were only five in existence (Oamaru, Lawrence, Port Chalmers, Milton and Invercargill): now there are 79 with about 3500 secondary pupils.

The growth of the Department's interest in secondary education may be summarized statistically by noting that in the fifty years of its existence the number of public secondary schools under its control has risen from twelve to forty-five, the number of pupils from 1,300 to 16,500, whilst its annual expenditure on secondary education has increased from a modest £7,200 to the imposing figure of £435,000.

EXAMINATION DAY ANSWERS.

Contributed by T. R. Fleming, M.A., LLB., ex-Senior Inspector of Schools, Otago.

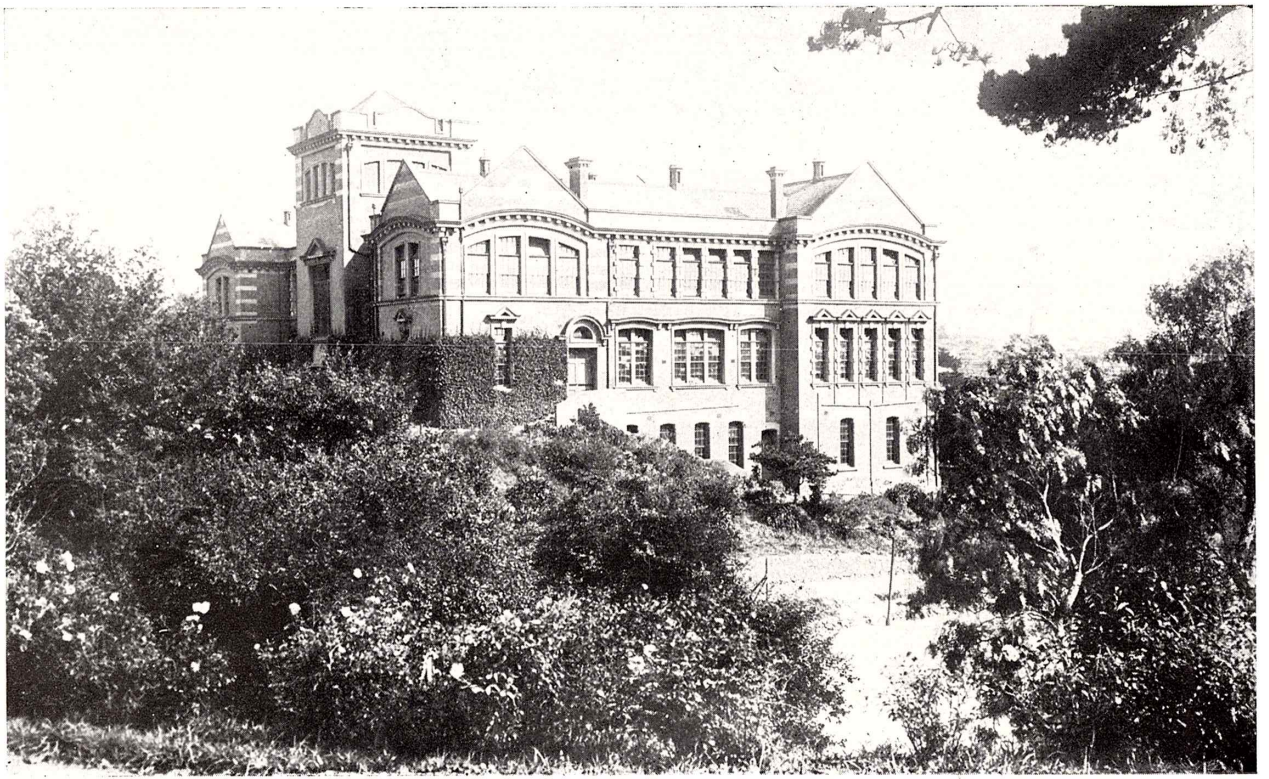
In the old days, when every child in the standards had to be passed by the inspector, I was examining the school at Kaitoke. When I came to the subject of history I took the historical reader in use in the school and opened the book at the lesson on the "Revolt of the Peasants in 1381." After a few questions I came to the preaching of John Ball:

> "When Adam dalf and Eve span,
> Who was then the gentleman?"

"Now, who was the gentleman?" I asked. At first the question seemed a poser, but I soon saw a sparkle in the eyes of a boy sitting on the front desk. He held up his hand. "Well," said I, "who was he?" "Please, sir, Satan," was the answer. "I have heard him called the old gentleman, my boy," said I; "even if he is not the one referred to here. However, you know something of the Bible." The boy passed. This incident had a sequel. A friend of mine, a reporter, often came into the office to have a chat, and on telling him the story, he asked permission to make use of it, to which I agreed. Now, after leaving Wellington in the early morning train, Kaitoke was the first refreshment room where a cup of tea was obtainable. I had often heard my commercial friends complain of what they called "the blueness of the milk," a fact I had not noticed for myself, but I was soon to learn the reason for it. The railway rooms were leased by an old gentleman whose lady, tall and commanding in appearance, was evidently the ruler of the

situation. So one Monday morning, as I got out at Kaitoke for my usual cup of tea, to my surprise I was greeted by the old lady with a smile. "Good morning, Mr. Fleming, how are you to-day?" Previously she had not taken any particular notice of me. On my asking for tea, she stooped down to the girl at the counter and whispered, "Give Mr. Fleming the cream." This was produced from a small jug which had been hidden by some bottles on a shelf behind. And always when the old lady was about I was more favoured than my commercial friends. It was the teacher who enlightened me as to the cause of this change. The old lady had been delighted that the "witty" answer her son gave the inspector had been recorded in the papers. The boy, too, justified the pass I gave him, for I learnt that he went to the Boer War and did well.

During the Boer War a wave of patriotism, fostered by Mr. Seddon, Prime Minister, and supported by Captain Russell (afterwards Sir William) swept through the country, and patriotic poems innumerable were presented to the inspectors for recitation. At that time the school year ended with the examination visits, which decided the promotion of the children. One of the country schools was being visited for this purpose in March, a few days before St. Patrick's Day. A piece of poetry entitled "The Union Jack" had been learnt by the children. I must admit they were letter perfect, but I had an impression that an intelligent knowledge of the content of the poem had not been displayed, so I immediately proceeded to question the children. My first question was: "What is the Union Jack?" To this I received no answer, nor when a picture of the flag was shown could the children tell me about the crosses on it. The school was situated in a community where the Hibernian Society was strong in numbers, and all around on the fences and buildings large posters were displayed giving particulars of a sports meeting on St. Patrick's Day. While no knowledge was shown of England's and Scotland's patron saints, I thought they would



HOWE STREET GIRLS' SECONDARY SCHOOL, AUCKLAND.

at least know of St. Patrick. But no, they were as ignorant of him as of St. George and St. Andrew. On looking through the names on the standard lists I had noticed one Patrick O'Brien. I asked him to stand. "What is your name?" He answered, "Pat O'Brien, sir." "No, not Pat, give me your name in full." I had no wish to offend my Irish friends by calling their patron saint St. Pat, so I said, "What is Pat short for?" He did not seem to know, but again maintained that Pat O'Brien was his full name. I went on with my explanation, and after a few minutes, on looking round, I saw that O'Brien was still standing. He had not been told to sit. "Now, O'Brien," said I, "you can now give me your name in full." And quite seriously he answered, "Yes, sir, St. Patrick O'Brien." At the end of the day, when I read the names of those children who were successful I was able to announce that St. Patrick O'Brien had passed.

In a scholarship paper set just after the women obtained the franchise the following answer was received to the question: "What people are entitled to vote in New Zealand?" "The women of New Zealand have now got the right to vote. It is thought that there will be better men in Parliament as the ladies will vote for those men who carry out their wishes, and their wishes will most likely be for doing away of the drink traffic, gambling and larrikinism, and they will want the Bible read in schools." I wonder whether the lady retained the optimism of her youth.

At the same scholarship examination, a boy, in an essay on "The Sea and its Wonders," wrote: "The shark is the most dreaded of all fish, on account of its man-eating qualities. Its mouth is under it, and when about to catch hold of anything, it has to turn on its back, giving a little time to the unfortunate being who is in such close connexion with the shark to say its prayers."

History is a subject which gives many opportunities for "howlers," some of which are perhaps more absurd than humorous. Some also give an inkling of the political ideas held in the homes. In a history paper set to applicants for entrance to the Civil Service the candidates were asked to write brief notes on certain historical personages, among whom were the names of Massey, Seddon, Chamberlain and Cobden. One boy, coming from a home which evidently supported Reform, wrote: "We boys will not forget the Right Hon. Mr. Massey, for when we put on our 'Bill Masseys' of a Monday we are sure to remember our late Prime Minister." Another, evidently from a Liberal Home, wrote: "Since his (Mr. Seddon's) premiership the country has been drifting as it always drifts under a Conservative Government."

Of Chamberlain, one wrote: "Joseph Chamberlain was the founder of some tablets which are called 'Chamberlain's Tablets.'" This boy was not as well acquainted with history as one who gave the answer recorded by Dr. Macnamara: "Sir Joseph Chamberlain invented fiscal policy and wears an orchard in his coat." Another said that Richard Cobden made a name for himself by flying round the world.

MANUAL TRAINING AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

W. S. La Trobe, M.A., Superintendent of Technical Education.

The history of manual training and technical education in New Zealand goes back to the very early days of the colony, long before the Education Department was established. Indeed, as early as 1847, 30 years before the Department came into existence, an ordinance was made by the Lieut.-Governor of New Zealand providing for schools to be established, maintained, or supported by public funds, and in this ordinance it was prescribed that "in every school to be established or supported by public funds...religious education, *industrial training,* and instruction in the English language shall form a necessary part of the system to be pursued therein," and the same idea of industrial training for the budding colonial is to be found in later years in the stated purposes of Crown grants for the endowment of such a school, for instance, as the Wanganui Collegiate School.

In Great Britain the forerunner of the modern technical school was the Mechanics Institute, which made its appearance about the middle of the last century. In New Zealand the first Mechanics Institute appears to have been founded in 1851, in Dunedin; winter courses of lectures being given more or less regularly for some eight or nine years. In 1859 this Institute amalgamated with the Athenaeum, which had just been established, and is still a vigorous institution. For some years, winter classes were conducted with varying success, till in 1873 the Caledonian Society took up the running and opened classes in the Athenaeum. In 1870 the Dunedin School of Art was founded, and in 1876 the Normal School in Moray Place was

opened and the evening classes and School of Art were transferred to the Normal School.

In 1877 the first Education Act was passed and the Department constituted at the beginning of the next year. For some years, however, little was done in the direction of manual and technical training. The first suggestions for the formation of classes on the lines of the Science and Art and Technological classes held in England in preparation for the South Kensington and City and Guilds of London examinations appear to have been made in Christchurch in 1887 by the Christchurch Industrial Association and Professor Bickerton, but almost at the same time, the Inspector General, the Rev. W. J. Habens, in more than one report, recommended to the Minister of Education the establishment of a Science and Art Department and evening classes. Meanwhile the Dunedin School of Art, under D. C. Hutton, was providing evening classes for nearly 200 artisans, in mechanical and architectural drawings as well as in pure art. In March, 1882, the Canterbury College School of Art was established under David Blair, who was succeeded in 1886 by G. H. Elliot, who remained in charge for nineteen years.

In 1884 the Inspector General forwarded to the Minister of Education the second report of the Royal Commission in England on technical education, in which it was proposed to have manual training, including drawing, elementary science, and possibly handwork with tools, in the elementary schools. In the same year A. D. Riley, Art Master with high South Kensington qualifications, was brought from England by the Wellington Education Board to take charge of the training of teachers and pupils in the Wellington Education District in drawing and kindred subjects.

The year 1885 is notable for the growing interest that was being taken in manual and technical training. The Department inquired from secondary schools what they were doing in the

matter of evening classes and also of classes in Woodwork and whether they favoured the vigorous development of subjects of practical instruction. Some of the schools, the Auckland College and Grammar School and Wellington College, for example, were providing training in Woodwork, as an out of school extra, the classes in Auckland being under J. G. Trevithick, a naval architect. Canterbury College at this time was experimenting with classes in building construction and applied science, the former under E. Dobson, M.Inst., C.E., the latter under Professor Bickerton. In Taranaki, Thos. Kelly, Chairman of the Education Board, suggested financing the proposed higher branches of technical education by means of the endowment which had been set aside for University purposes in that province, but the proposal was not entertained by the Government. The Departmental papers on education for this year contain descriptions of manual training in Sweden, Finland, German, France, and Holland, as well as in England, and the object of such training is definitely and clearly set out as being "not to teach trades but to train the intellect."

In July, 1885, in his speech as Minister of Education, the Hon. Mr. Robert Stout said that the system of education in New Zealand was weak in three respects. First, there had not been a proper gradation between the primary and secondary schools; secondly, there had been more attention paid to the literary part of education than to the scientific; and, thirdly, technical education had been almost entirely ignored. He proposed to make Drawing compulsory in the primary schools because it was the basis of all technical-science education, and to introduce principles of mechanics without textbooks or object lessons, and, in country districts a bias towards agriculture. He hoped even to see some working school where the handling of tools might be taught to children, if only for an hour or two a week.

In the following year regulations were issued providing for drawing being made, gradually, a pass subject in all Standards. In 1886 also, the Hon. Mr. Robert Stout recommended specialization in the University and suggested an Engineering School in Canterbury College. This was founded in the following year.

During the first years of his work in the Wellington district Mr. Riley, believing that the foundations of a strong school of art and design should be laid in the primary schools by a systematic training in drawing, developed a system of training teachers and of examining the work of pupils, which soon grew to considerable dimensions and spread beyond the district itself. This system, which involved the examination of thousands of papers annually in a five years' course, continued in operation for some seventeen years.

The next few years showed a steady advance. By the year 1888 there were Schools of Art in each of the four centres. Further, the Wellington School affiliated to the Science and Art Department, South Kensington, and later to the City and Guilds of London Institute. The Wanganui School of Art, established under the Rees bequest, was opened in 1893, and the School of Domestic Instruction, Christchurch, in the same year.

About the year 1890 the Department began to make grants for technical education, and for the next five years the appropriation was about £1,000 per annum. Further, in 1895 the first Act dealing with manual and technical instruction was passed. It provided for the granting of subsidies on a very moderate scale to classes established for instruction in such branches of science, art and technology as were encouraged by the South Kensington and City and Guilds authorities, and also to workshops connected with public schools. The same Act allowed part of the ordinary school time to be given to elementary manual instruction. But the capitation was quite insufficient to encourage Boards to develop the work vigorously.

After a visit to Europe, Mr. Riley in 1898 presented an exhaustive report to the House of Representatives and made recommendations that covered practically all that has been done since in connexion with manual and technical instruction. The Department endorsed the report, and part of it was adopted in the Act of 1900. This Act provided capitation at about double the rates of the Act of five years before, with the result that there was an immediate and enormous expansion in the work. For the previous year the appropriation for manual and technical instruction was only £2,510; for the year 1900-01, it jumped to £18,500, and four years later had reached £33,000.

In 1904, Mr. La Trobe succeeded Mr. Riley at the Wellington Technical School. In the following year full-time day classes for Junior Free Place pupils were established, with the object of providing a link between the primary school and the evening classes of the technical school. These were immediately successful, and within a year or two were adopted in the other chief centres.

The 1908 Act made special provision for day technical schools, and in 1914 technical high schools were defined and special provision made for their recognition. Favoured by a liberal Free Place system, these technical high schools increased at a very rapid rate in enrolment and importance and are now the most prominent feature of the system.

The period from 1895 to 1920—a quarter of a century—may be called the capitation period of manual and technical instruction in New Zealand. The capitation system underwent several changes, generally in the direction of increasing rates, and of encouraging "grouped courses" in which higher capitation was paid on the attendance of pupils taking a group of connected subjects. The system tended to mushroom growths of elementary classes, and was probably well calculated to promote the spread of the movement in the earlier stages.

The institution of a Dominion classification of primary school teachers involved a principle which it was soon seen must be applied also in the case of full-time technical and secondary school teachers. Accordingly a scheme was drawn up for the classification of technical school teachers, concurrently with the preparation of a different scheme applicable to secondary schools. The principle of payment by pupil-hour capitation was definitely abandoned, and a new system of salaries for full-time teachers and teacher-hour capitation for part-time teachers was introduced.

In the last eight years the main development has been the strengthening of the staffs of the technical schools and the placing of their finances on a more stable footing, together with a closer connexion with traders through the operation of the Apprentices Act, 1923. The training of specialists has considerably improved through the development of special schools in the University, among which the School of Home Science, Dunedin, the School of Engineering, Christchurch, and the Schools of Agriculture at Lincoln and Palmerston North, especially the first, provide courses suitable for the training of technical school teachers. Recently the Canterbury College School of Art has provided special courses leading to a University diploma, and it is expected that this course will be found suitable for the training of Art teachers.

"CAST THY BREAD UPON THE WATERS."

Contributed by Mr. G. W. C. MACDONALD, being the experience of a friend.

I had just received an appointment as headmaster of a Grade 7 school. During the first week, I had been making myself acquainted with the quality of the work of the staff and noticing the general tone of the school. I was particularly impressed by the appearance of a pupil in the 5th class. He was a boy of outstanding physique with a handsome, intellectual face from which a pair of large brown eyes looked fearlessly into yours. A conversation with the 1st assistant dispelled some of my illusions, as he informed me that the lad was an incorrigible liar. Lying was his besetting sin. My predecessor had repeatedly flogged him, sometimes most unmercifully for this fault but he bore his punishment with spartan stoicism without showing any signs of reformation. A few weeks later as he had been absent for 3 days, I asked the assistant to send him to me on his return. When he came into the office I inquired why he had been absent. In a most entertaining manner he told me that he had had an accident which necessitated a daily visit to the hospital for treatment. On the conclusion of his story told with inimitable sang-froid, I informed him that I was sorry that I could not believe his tale. He was most indignant and began to reiterate the narrative. "I shall give you three minutes, Jack, to tell me the truth." I opened my watch and placed it on the table before me. He continued his narrative. "One minute has gone, Jack." He proceeded with his story in quite a hurt tone. "Two minutes have gone, Jack, and at the end of three minutes, I am going

down to your home.'' Jack's voice became silent for a time, then he blurted ''My story is all lies, Sir, I have been wagging it.'' I pointed out to him the dishonour of his conduct, and the mistrust and contempt he would bring upon himself when he went out into the world where the man whose word was his bond was the man who was respected. I asked him ''Are you afraid of a flogging, Jack?'' ''No, Sir!'' ''Then, when you have done wrong, why do you deny it? Why don't you stand your punishment like a manly fellow?'' All this time the boy had been rubbing his hands. ''You need not rub your hands, Jack, I am not going to punish you. I thought you were a manly fellow but now I am ashamed of you.'' Poor Jack broke down and sobbed as if his heart would break. When he had partly recovered, I said, ''As long as you are in this school, Jack, I hope you will never tell me another lie, but if you have done wrong, say so, and take like a man whatever punishment comes to you. Then I shall be proud of you.'' During the rest of his school career I never had occasion to doubt his word.

Sequel.

In 1919 a stalwart soldier in uniform walked into my office. I asked him what I could do for him. ''You do not know me, Sir?'' I immediately recognized my old pupil, Jack. He was returning from France and had gone out of his way to see me before travelling to Australia. He wished to thank me for putting him right when he was going on the wrong track. What a confab we had and, when I unearthed his story, how proud I felt of my old pupil. Sometimes in after years a teacher receives a compensation like this one which brings a lump into his throat and dimness to his eyes.

THE HISTORY OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

A. BELL, M.A., *Assistant Director of Education.*

Fortunately for New Zealand many of the leading public men at the time of the earliest settlements had a right appreciation of the value of higher education, and were alive to the necessity of establishing a Colonial University as soon as the expenditure could reasonably be provided. Professor G. E. Thompson in his "History of Otago University" says that the idea of creating a university in the new land was born in Scotland, came to the colony with the first settlers, and was included among the attractions enumerated by the Otago Association in the appeals throughout Scotland for support for the Settlement Scheme. Similar ideals were held by the Canterbury pioneers, who came to the country fully convinced of the importance of education in all its phases.

New Zealand was equally fortunate in the men chosen to fill the important positions of professors at the inception of our University Colleges. Our country and our university students owe much to Professors Shand, Sale, MacGregor and Black in Otago, and Macmillan-Brown, Cook, Bickerton and Von Haast in Canterbury, men of high ideals who were indefatigable in their efforts in overcoming early difficulties, entered wholeheartedly into their work, and made their influence felt, not only on the studies, but also on the life and character of their students.

In the sixties there was considerable controversy in and out of Parliament as to whether it was the better policy to establish a university college in New Zealand or to follow the example of

Tasmania by providing scholarships to enable the best students to finish their education in England. A select committee was set up in 1867 by Parliament to report on the matter, several witnesses were examined and a large number of educationists interested were consulted. The Committee strongly recommended against the Colonial University, and accordingly Parliament made provision for eight scholarships, two to be awarded annually. As a protest against this action a public meeting of the people of Dunedin was held for the purpose of promoting a university of their own, and support was obtained from the Synod of the Presbyterian Church, with the result that in 1868 Mr. Macandrew, Superintendent of the Province, in his address at the opening of the Provincial Council, announced that the time had come when measures towards obtaining a university should be commenced. The suggestion was taken up enthusiastically, with the result that in the following year, 1869, the University of Otago Ordinance was passed, under which the University of Otago was constituted. It was opened in 1871, with due ceremony and amid the enthusiasm of the whole province. In this respect Otago had led the way and laid the foundations of University education in this country. At first instruction was confined to Arts and Science, but the scope of the work was extended in 1873-5 to include Law and Medicine and in 1878 to Mining. A School of Dentistry was added in 1907 and a School of Home Science in 1911.

This action on the part of Otago forced the General Assembly, which previously was moving in leisurely fashion, to waken up to its responsibility, and in 1870 the New Zealand University Act was passed constituting a University Council with the usual powers of providing for instruction, awarding scholarships and examining for degrees. The Act also provided for amalgamation with Otago University on certain conditions so as to avoid unnecessary duplication and overlapping.

The New Zealand Council was appointed early in 1871 under Mr. H. J. Tancred as first Chancellor, and negotiations were opened for amalgamation with Otago. Discussion of the question continued for three or four years without satisfactory solution, and at last the preliminary steps taken for the establishment of a college in Christchurch by the passing of the Canterbury College Ordinance in 1873 forced the Government to reconsider the whole position.

Under the Act of 1874, which replaced the earlier Act of 1870, the New Zealand University was created an examining body, was precluded from interfering with the affiliated teaching institutions and received an annual grant of £3,000, and the Otago University was required to give up its power of granting degrees. Among the affiliated institutions, besides Otago University and Canterbury College, were Nelson College, Wellington College and Auckland Grammar School.

In Canterbury, too, an essential part of the settlement scheme was the provision of a college of University standing, and many references to such an institution are to be found in the early papers connected with the foundation of the province. The first classes, established in July, 1872, by a body known as the Canterbury Collegiate Union, were affiliated to, and received a grant from, the New Zealand University.

The Provincial Council in 1873 passed the Canterbury College Ordinance, Mr. William Rolleston, the Superintendent of the Provincial Council, giving it his hearty support. This ordinance made the usual provision for the appointment of a governing body, the appointment of professors and the establishment of a university college. At the same time the Provincial Council set aside large areas of land as endowments for the new college, and made grants of money for a site and buildings. Mr. Joshua S. Williams, afterwards Judge Williams, was the first Chairman of the Board of Governors. The College

classes were opened in 1874 and 1875 under Professors Bickerton, Brown, Cook and Von Haast, and the classes under the Collegiate Union were closed. The staff was increased from time to time and now includes fifteen professors. Engineering lectures were added in 1885, a full-time lectureship established in 1890 and the Engineering School gradually developed till the staff now includes three professors.

In 1879 a Royal Commission on University and Secondary Education set up the previous year with Sir Maurice O'Rorke as Chairman reported on the results of a full investigation into the condition of university and secondary education. The Commission recommended that University colleges be established at Wellington and Auckland respectively, that the affiliated institutions other than the four university colleges should cease to be recognised as such, that the New Zealand University should continue to function as an examining body with the sole right to grant degrees in New Zealand, but that the affiliated colleges be brought into a much closer relation with the University though not to be under the actual control or jurisdiction of the Senate. The Commission also recommended a new constitution for the N.Z. University Senate, its members being largely representative of the four affiliated colleges, their councils, professors and graduates. These were important recommendations, and though they were not all put into operation immediately they forecasted reforms that were gradually introduced in succeeding years.

The first attempt to provide a university college for Auckland was made in 1872 by Mr. (afterwards Sir) Maurice O'Rorke, member for Onehunga, who introduced the Auckland University Bill to provide for a teaching university for Auckland which was to serve the North Island, while Otago University, already established, was to serve the South Island. The New Zealand University was to be superseded and its income divided between

the two universities named. The Bill was passed by the Lower House, but was thrown out by the Upper House. It was not till ten years later that the Auckland University College Act, 1882, was passed, under which the Arts and Science School was opened in 1883, and an annual statutory grant of £4,000 provided for its maintenance. Gradually the college was developed till it now includes also schools in Engineering, opened in 1905, Architecture in 1917, and Forestry in 1924.

Victoria College, Wellington was established under the Victoria College Act, 1897, and opened in 1899 with a staff of four professors. It has now a staff of fourteen professors, with the usual staff of assistants, part time lecturers, librarians, and others. At first classes were held in the girls' college and technical school buildings, but in 1901 the present site was acquired and the first grant for buildings was made in 1903. An initial statutory grant of £4,000 was given for maintenance, but this has been increased from time to time and now stands at £11,750.

From the founding of the University the advisability of providing scholarships for the best students has been recognised, and one of the chief functions of the New Zealand University has been to maintain a system of scholarships for both junior and senior students. These scholarships are now of three kinds—

(1) Junior or Entrance Scholarships, of which thirty are awarded annually, for competition among the best pupils of secondary schools, and tenable for the three years of the bachelor's degree course:

(2) Senior Scholarships, of which about twenty are awarded annually, for students who are proceeding to honours:

(3) Post graduate scholarships, which are usually travelling scholarships tenable at Universities abroad.

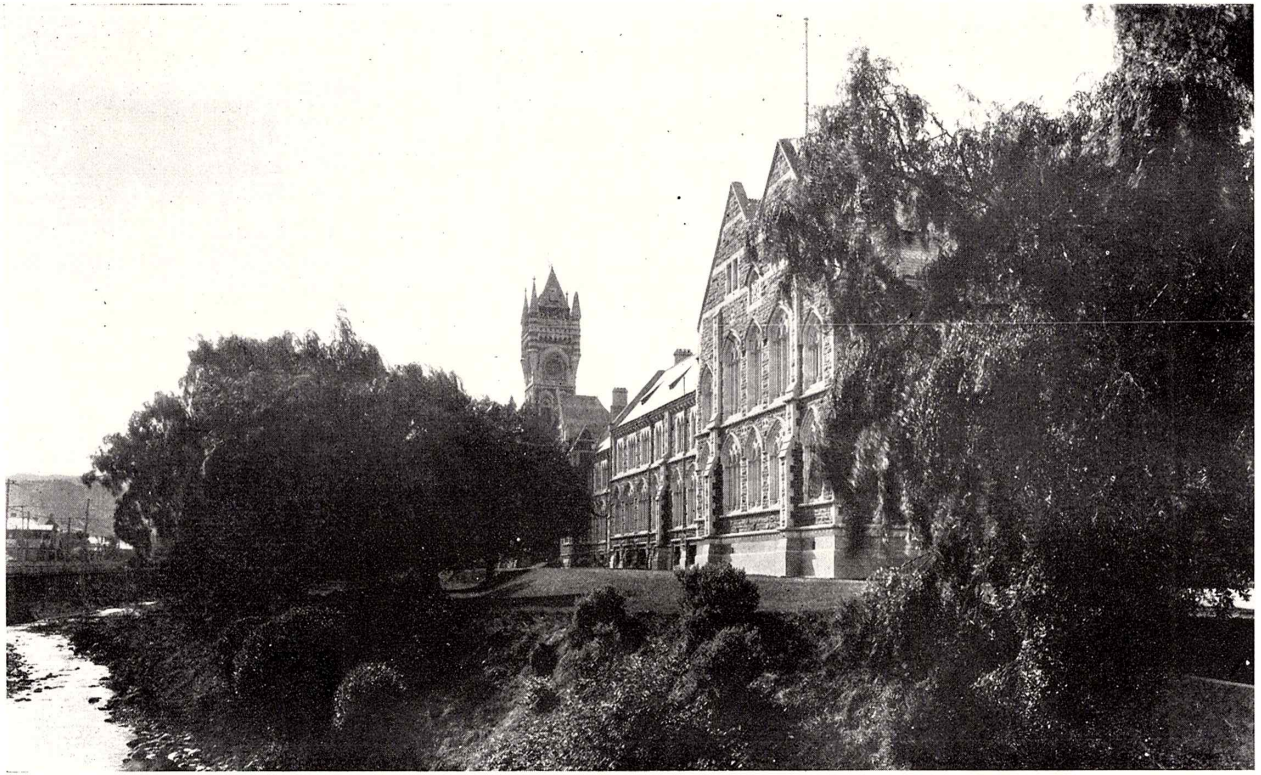
The revenue of the New Zealand University was, however, limited, and soon after the adoption of free secondary education

in 1903 it was found necessary to open wider the doors of the University to those qualifying from our high schools. University bursaries providing free tuition were first awarded in 1907 to those who passed with credit the Entrance Scholarship Examination, but later, in 1914, the bursaries were extended to include holders of Higher Leaving Certificates from high schools, so that now the university colleges are free to all who complete their full course in the high schools and make satisfactory progress, and New Zealand probably led the way in making education free from the Kindergarten to the University. In addition to university bursaries free university tuition is provided by means of education bursaries for teachers proceeding to a degree, of studentships for those in teachers' training colleges, of Home Science bursaries for those attending the Home Science School of Otago University with the view to qualification as teachers, and of Agricultural bursaries for those desirous of becoming Agricultural Instructors. There are also bursaries in engineering, architecture and other branches of study. Besides, there are connected with the colleges many privately endowed scholarships and bursaries.

The latest returns to hand, those for 1927, show that out of 3670 matriculated and graduate students attending the university colleges no less than 2075, or nearly 57 per cent., were holders of Government scholarships, exhibitions and bursaries carrying free education, and many of them received living allowances as well.

The University colleges are maintained mainly from four sources: (1) endowment income, (2) Government grants, (3) students' fees, and (4) private benefactions supplemented by Government subsidies.

As each college was established it was granted endowments by either the Government or the Provincial Council, but these grants have been by no means equal, for while Canterbury is



OTAGO UNIVERSITY.

		Income Derived from			
		Endowments	Grants	Fees	All other sources including Bequests & Investments
35	Auckland	2,000	16,000	14,500	3,000
29	Victoria	300	12,600	10,500	6,000
40	Canterbury	15,000	7,850	13,000	1,000
42	Otago	7,000	17,550	20,000	5,000

almost independent of Government assistance Victoria's revenue from endowments has almost vanished. The present income from endowments are, approximately, Canterbury £18,000, Otago £7,000, Auckland £2,000, Victoria £300. In 1914 a proportion of national endowment income was set aside for the University, and from this source the amounts distributed among the colleges are now about £13,000 annually. Otago University also receives the income from an endowment controlled by the Presbyterian Church, now producing about £2,500 per annum.

At the time of establishment Auckland and Victoria received grants from the Government of £4,000 each. In 1909 each of the four colleges received a specialization grant of £2,000, and Otago an extra £750 for Mining. These grants were increased from time to time, and now the revenues from this source are: Auckland £16,000, Victoria £12,600, Canterbury £7,850, Otago £17,550.

Students' tuition fees have varied from time to time and from college to college, but at a meeting held during 1928 it was decided to adopt a uniform scale for all the colleges, and it is estimated that the fees will produce the following sums:— Auckland £14,500, Victoria £10,500, Canterbury £13,000, Otago £20,000. Of these fees approximately a half is paid by the Government for holders of bursaries and scholarships.

All the colleges must rely largely on benefactions for their maintenance and development, and in order to encourage revenue from this source the Government has, since 1914, paid subsidies on voluntary contributions. Here again the colleges have not been equally fortunate, for the people of Otago appear to take a greater pride in their University than do those of the other centres. So far as can be gathered from the records the following are approximately the monetary gifts to the University

Colleges for various purposes, those for scholarships, buildings and endowment of teaching chairs being shown separately:—

College.	Research and Scholarships.	Buildings and Equipment.	General Endowment and Teaching Chairs.	Other Purposes.	Total.
Auckland	12,000	20,600	20,000	6,700	59,300
Victoria	7,300	80,000	20,000	11,200	118,500
Canterbury	14,400	4,400	2,700	—	21,500
Otago	27,000	39,000	73,900	11,400	151,300

When certain gifts subject to life interest become available and Government subsidies are paid Otago will have a capital endowment of nearly £120,000 for general expenses and special chairs, and a further £45,000 for research and scholarships—sums that will in the near future place the University in a much stronger financial position. It is hoped that wealthy citizens of the other parts of the country will follow the example of those in Otago in this respect. It is worthy of note that Sydney University has endowments derived from private sources of over a million, producing at present a revenue of nearly £75,000 annually, and that Melbourne, Brisbane and Adelaide have revenues of over £15,000 each as the result of private benefactions.

Though the sums provided from Government sources for University education—endowments, monetary grants, scholarships, etc.—amount to between £170,000 and £180,000 annually, or nearly £40 per student, these grants do not compare favourably with the grants paid by other parts of the Empire. Great Britain provides from public sources £3,000,000 annually for colleges attended by about 55,000 students, or over £54 per student; New South Wales nearly £80,000 for Sydney University, or £32 per student; Wales £244,000 for 2900 students, or £84 per student; and South Africa, Victoria and Western Australia are almost equally liberal.

Sir James Parr, Minister of Education, set up a Commission in 1925, consisting of Sir Harry Reichel, of the University of Wales, and Mr. Frank Tate, Director of Education, Victoria, to report on the state of University education in New Zealand, and their report dealt fully with many questions affecting the development and efficiency of the colleges. The colleges were reported to be unduly dominated by a system of external examinations; too many of our students engaged in earning a living devote only part time to their studies, there are few residential institutions connected with the colleges, the staffs of the colleges are quite inadequate to give effective instruction to the large numbers of students, libraries are seriously neglected; there is a want of co-ordination between the teaching colleges and the New Zealand University, the financial provision is altogether inadequate for the work undertaken, there is unnecessary duplication of special schools, more chairs have been established than are necessary, and in other ways the colleges are being adversely affected to such an extent as to make the work of the Professors difficult, and what is more serious, to cast some doubt on the value of the degrees granted. These are deficiencies that will take years to overcome, and will tax the administrative ability of the controlling Councils and the Government if they are to institute effective reformative measures, and place our colleges in a position to compete and compare with those of the other parts of the Empire.

It has been impossible in the course of so short an article to make adequate reference to important movements connected with the history of our University Colleges, or even to mention many matters of interest, but sufficient has been said to show that we owe much to the early settlers for their foresight in placing higher education in the forefront of the functions of the Government, in overcoming almost insuperable difficulties, and in establishing a University system which, in spite of many drawbacks, places the means of obtaining a University training within

the reach of thousands of students who show ability to profit thereby. Our system is by no means perfect, and we may have much to do to remove deficiencies and make our teaching more effective and our college life more cultural and beneficial, but the statement made by Sir Robert Stout, when speaking as Minister of Education in 1885, is more true now than ever—"It is a matter of congratulation that New Zealand has, relatively to her population, as many students receiving University education as any country in the world, and probably more University trained men than ony other country."

REMINISCENCES.

Mr. J. H. Pope, late Senior Inspector of Native Schools.

[Note.—It will be seen that after those days of strenuous effort between Ohingaiti and Taumarunui Mr. Pope failed in his mission and was compelled to turn back. The trip may now be made in comfort by rail in five hours.—Editor.]

I arrived at Ohingaiti on 17th May, 1894, and soon convinced myself that it was inadvisable to proceed via Tokaanu if I wished to reach Taumarunui without serious difficulty, the road via Karioi, Ohakune and Waimarino being almost impassable.

A guide who did not know the fords of the Wanganui but who was otherwise unexceptional was engaged, stores were bought, and a start made on 20th May at 10 o'clock. At 2 o'clock the southern extremity of Roto-Aira was reached, the distance being 23 miles. Thence we rode on to Matapihi, 33 miles from Tokaanu, on a spur of Ngauruhoe and but a short distance from that volcano.

On the 21st we got away soon after 8 o'clock and reached Whakapapa Nui by a fairish road in a couple of hours. The river was dangerous when the waters were abundant on account of the rapidity of the current and the number of large boulders. Just over the river was a government whare, erected on one of the spurs of Ruapehu, a noble object within our sight right on until the Taumarunui bush was reached. Thence we hastened to Moturoa over open land for the most part, but we had to push through the Whakapapa Iti bush with its bad road and unpleasant river crossings. We found Moturoa a deserted Maori settlement with but little interest—distance 48 miles from Tokaanu.

Now we were in sight of the Taumarunui bush and had to enter it at the right place, but this proved to be no easy matter. Our guide had been this way only once about nine years ago. However, after the loss of about an hour and a half we hit the opening and entered. (Meanwhile the sky had been gradually clouding over and there were occasional sprinklings of rain.) A steady drizzle set in, slight but ominous. We pushed on into the bush for eight miles, and camped near water at 5.30 o'clock. We made a huge fire and fixed ourselves up as well as we could. The drizzle continued all night long.

The Taumarunui bush had (all things considered) what must have been under favourable circumstances a fair road, although there were some rather appalling cuttings in it and some highly dangerous "turn-offs." These "turn-offs" were rendered necessary by the falling of trees across the track. On the whole in good weather there should have been no difficulty in getting along the road.

On the 22nd we breafasted at dawn, and starting at daylight made fair progress, but all the time it was raining harder and harder. At last at about 11 o'clock the rain was coming down in torrents. We were all wet to the skin—it seemed to the bone. About 1 o'clock we reached Otapouri, a settlement without inhabitants, but used by the Taumarunui natives as a pigeon shooting station. Thence we hastened on through the bush again to the great totara forest of Taumarunui with its giant trees. At last we emerged even from this, wet and cold indeed but in good spirits, for the Wanganui, a broad and open stream, lay before us. We swerved to the left to descend to the river, and after about a mile of bad road we reached the place where the ford was to be expected, but could see no such thing. Most unpleasant-looking rapids there were, and a deep, strong current where there were no rapids, but nothing like a ford.

Then we carefully examined the opposite bank, but could not

see anything like a track anywhere, except indeed about a quarter of a mile down the river. The guide looked at this track and reported that it was not a traffic way, only a drinking place for wild horses. There was not the slightest justification for attempting to swim the river. We had travelled eighty miles from Tokaanu in vain; we were beaten and we knew it.

The shades of evening were coming on; the rain, which had almost ceased when we reached the river, was again threatening; we were wet, cold, dispirited and left with a very short supply of food. What we were to do? A short consultation decided; we must hasten back to Otapouri, if perchance we might reach that uninviting spot before it became very dark.

We did not do this, but fortunately the rain ceased instead of increasing again, and we arrived within three miles of Otapouri before it became pitch dark. With the aid of a candle we managed to keep the track, to reach Otapouri, and get into one of the imperfect whares. After an hour or so a fire was started and we eventually got through the night. Next day we managed to reach Waimarino on our road to Ohakune. The account of the road given by the Maoris was so discouraging that we decided to return to Tokaanu. They said that one of the principal bridges was broken down, that the descent to the bed of the river was a dangerous precipice, and that 16 miles of the road lay over a dangerous swamp. At Waimarino we put up with the Maoris; our stay with them lasted about 36 hours and they were exceedingly kind. On the morning of the 25th we started from Waimarino just before 8 o'clock, and by means of hard riding reached Tokaanu (fifty miles) by 7 o'clock in the evening.

You will understand that it was not my fault that I could not look into the question of establishing a school at Taumarunui.

HENRY HILL, B.A., Ex-Senior Inspector of Schools, Hawkes Bay.

In the Hawkes Bay district prior to 1878 the schools were either denominational or provincial, and grants were made to

those who were in charge. Assistants were provided and paid by the head teachers such remuneration as they could afford out of their small provincial grants and school fees. There were comparatively few schools in operation, and these were confined to places where settlement was taking place along the line of railway then in process of construction or in the new settlement of areas within what was then known as the Forty Mile Bush. To go from school to school Inspectors had usually to ride along tracks which to-day are represented by splendid macadamized roads of excellent grade and structure.

Between Napier, Mohaka, and Wairoa, it used to take us three days of hard travelling. To-day motor cars cover the distance between Napier and Wairoa in four hours and travellers can start from one town to the other three times daily.

On a certain day in June, 1907, I was due at Wimbledon and had telegraphed from Porangahau that I would be there at 10.30. I was told that the roads were fair, better than for years. I started at 7 a.m. and soon got into difficulties, as the roads were very heavy and in places deep in mud. Reaching the hills I found the mud from eight to ten inches deep, but I could not walk and guide the horse as the mud was too deep to get through. All went well till the last long hill was reached, when the climax came. The road was so bad that I had to jump out about one hundred and twenty yards after crossing a bridge to ascend the hill. It must have been about sixty feet above the deep mud creek below. The horse had got into a deep quagmire and I had to jump out to ease him.

This saved me, for the next moment the horse gave a bound to get out of the mud, and in doing so sprang over the edge of the road on to the sloping grass. He strove to hold up and in so doing pulled the trap to the side, and in the twinkling of an eye my poor horse, trap, and belongings went slipping and rolling down the hill. They reached a ledge and from there

bounded right into the creek, where the horse lay on his side actually filling the creek but eight feet below perpendicular banks. Imagine my dilemma! Alone—horse and belongings lost, not a human being within miles. I called to the poor fellow, and he almost said: "Fetch me out." He made a plunge once or twice, and then lay passive, moaning, with his head falling into the water. I reached the upturned trap, and seeing no hope unless I got into the water went in up to my waist. I cut the traces, and after a lot of difficulty lifted my soaked belongings to the bank, and tied the rope to the horse's blinkers and then to a tuft of grass to save him from being drowned.

After an hour's wetting in the water and doing all I could I determined to go for help, and I had to get up the hill and along roads that were beyond description. Three miles I trudged and then saw a whare up among the hills, coo-ed but got no reply. I went up to it, a mile up the hills or more, and fancy my disappointment when there was nobody at home! And yet I felt someone had been there not long before, so I left a short note begging anyone, should he read it, to come at once and help me, and tied it to the chain of the door.

I had not gone more than a quarter of a mile before I heard shouting. I shouted back "Look on your door." The word "door" was caught. My note was seen and read, and in as it seemed to me almost the twinkling of an eye I heard the sound of horse's feet. A young man galloped up, and then another and still another with rope and spade, and before I returned three young men were at work trying their best to save the horse. And they did work, but to no purpose. Do what we would, the moment the poor horse moved—and he was shivering as if he would die—he sank more into the mud, which was almost up to my knees. No, there must be a loss of the horse, for the place was too narrow and too soft, and the horse was too cold and too weak to move.

Just at this moment another stranger made his appearance. He bade me good-day, and said he had heard shouting and had come to see what was the cause of it. He took in the situation at a glance, and said that nothing could save the horse unless it was pulled out by bullocks. He had his team of bullocks over the hills and in a jiffy said, "I will fetch them. Break down the fence. Keep up his head till I come and I will pull him out." At last, fully four hours after the horse had fallen in, they came over the hill, down the steep hill-side, across the broken fence, through the knee-deep mud. The man, with a chain in his hand, goes to the horse, puts it round its neck, ties it in a curious slip-knot, puts the knot under the horse's chin and arranges his bullocks up the steep hill.

Then began the most wonderful thing of all. "Gee-up," was the word; the bullocks began to pull, and I, absolutely amazed at the sight, saw the horse moved, rigid, the neck I thought leaving the body, the four legs stiff, not a movement but the bullock upward and the whole horse upward on to the flat. The driver said, "Whoa"!, ran to the chain, unloosed it and, wonder of wonders, the horse, after all those hours of immersion, stood up, trembled, shook himself, *and began to eat!* I ran and put on his cover and my cloak. The bullock driver said: "Shall I pull out the trap?" He did so, and second wonder—only a shaft broken and a lamp gone. Then he said: "Good-day" and departed.

One of my three remaining friends lent me his horse and sent me on my way to Wimbledon, where I arrived about four o'clock, thoroughly chilled to the bone. My young men brought bag, cloak, and cover at night in pelting rain, and I felt proud of them. They said that I had examined them when boys and they had not forgotten me, that it pleased them to help, and so it was also with the bullock driver.

The school at the Port was the school I first entered as Inspector in the Hawkes Bay district (at that time there were no school buildings owned by the Board, but only a few denominational schools) and I confess to my being somewhat surprised to find children playing and tumbling about in the school-room. A man was sitting smoking a pipe, and the following coloquy took place:

"Excuse me, but are you the schoolmaster in charge here?"

"No, sorr."

"Do you know who is?"

"My wife, sorr."

After introducing myself, "Could I speak to your wife?"

"Yes, sorr."

The lady, I learnt during the play interval, was washing clothes, and her husband was placed in charge to see that things were going on all right.

At a small school some miles from Woodville on the banks of the Manawatu a teacher was wanted and a single man was appointed. In those days teachers were not as abundant as now, and as long as a man had good credentials and fair recommendations he was usually given a chance.

Unknown to me the teacher at this school was a tippler. I had visited the school and had taught a whole morning session, and had left feeling that things would go on well. One Eastertide a certain money-lender in Napier came to my office to enquire about this teacher. Was his wife sick, and had she gone to the hospital? I could merely say that I was unaware of the master being a married man, unless it was of recent occurrence, and as for his wife's sickness, I knew nothing. This satisfied my inquirer.

About a fortnight after, the same money-lender again sought information from me. Had I heard that the teacher's wife had died and that he had come to town to take her away to his home,

but wanted money, on the security of his salary? Calling for the office clerk, I inquired if he had heard of the teacher's trouble. From his reply I realized that something was wrong, as he stated that the man had called at the office and appeared to be fuddled. To the money-lender I casually remarked that I would see the man myself in a couple of days at his school. Briefly, I found that without the permission of his Committee the man had gone to Napier on a bout for the cost of which he borrowed money on the illness of an imaginary wife, and that when the fit again took him it was the same wife's death that procured the wherewithal. His career was cut short.

This brief sketch does not show the extent of the district travelled, the thousands of miles to be covered in moving twice a year from school to school in a district extending some three hundred miles from the sea-coast to the mountains in the West. Rivers were bridgeless and had to be crossed, the country was roadless but not trackless and had to be traversed, population was sparse and men and women worked hard and had little time for education. It was the enthusiasm of the Inspector that kept things going. In a district unknown except to my Chairman, the late Hon. J. D. Ormond, who was administrator of the East Coast during the troublous times of Hau Hauism and Te Kootiism, there was no representative of districts as is now the case. The Inspector had to do all the organizing work. He met the teachers in Council, arranged for training classes long before the plan was recognized in the country, and whenever possible spent a day in a country school taking charge of the teaching and helping teachers out of their difficulties by meeting Committees when trouble appeared as population increased and interest grew in educational work.

Let me say in conclusion that as far as I know I am the only living representative of the old Provincial System who, since the passing of Provincialism, has known every Inspector General

and Director of Education, every Secretary of Education, and up to the time of my retirement every Inspector of Schools.

A. CRAWFORD, M.A., INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS, WANGANUI.

To visit a certain district there was the choice between travelling in a small boat or making an overland journey on horseback. As the channel in the river entrance changed its direction from time to time soundings were always taken as the steamer entered, and there was an element of uncertainty as to whether she got in or not. In bad weather the trip was put off from day to day until the weather moderated. For these reasons we invariably fell back on the overland journey. The first part of this journey was over a six foot track, which passed over a saddle on a fairly high range of hills and then proceeded right out to the sea coast. The total length of the journey was some 34 miles, the last part of it being along a beautiful beach. Mails were brought by the steamer mentioned above, and on one occasion I reached my destination before the notice of my visit, which had been posted three weeks before. The weather had been too rough to allow the steamer to enter and consequently all mails were long delayed.

I recollect on another occasion setting out from the end of the rail in very wet weather to ride through. I had a fairly good horse and had got about 7 miles on the way when I found the track blocked by a fallen tree. There was no way of getting over it as the track fell sheer into the river at that place. I tied up my horse and went in search of an axe. The only tool I could find was a mattock left by the road men, and with this I tried for a long time to chop the tree through. I was quite unsuccessful in doing this, so fixing the horse's bridle on the stirrup iron I turned the horse back home and essayed to walk some 14 miles to the nearest accommodation house. This I reached wet through about 9 p.m. I was soon set up in the

proprietor's best suit and had all my clothes dried before midnight. Next day I got another horse and resumed my journey. This track I understand has long since become disused, a motor road having been constructed by a less hilly route.

Another incident that still impresses itself on my mind occurred in this locality. It happened at a much later date than the two events recorded above. In company with the Chairman of the Education Board I attended a meeting of residents to fix a site for a new school in their locality. As is very often the case in a small district there were two parties each desiring the school in their own centre. The meeting was somewhat protracted on this account. It had rained incessantly all day, crossing was made in a punt, it was midnight. To avoid calling up the ferryman at such a late hour, the driver of our car said he would take us across in the punt. He ran the car up on the punt, we got aboard, and he slackened off the rope that held the punt. We then saw in the darkness of the night that the river was so high in flood that we would never have attempted the crossing in daylight. Then one of the ropes snapped, and it looked as though we were going to be carried down the flooded river. The punt turned end on, but the current was so swift that we were carried across the river in a flash. We appeared to be making for the rocks where we would all have been most certainly capsized into the river, when the driver hauled on one of the ropes and we immediately shot into smooth water at the proper landing place. There was plenty of thrill in this episode at the time it occurred.

TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS.

H. A. Parkinson, M.A., Secretary of the New Zealand Educational Institute.

The roots of the organizations of teachers as they exist to-day run far back into the history of education in New Zealand. In the pre-1877 days, the days of Provincial Governments, each province had its own education system, and in several of them the teachers at a very early stage banded themselves together in local Associations. Not always very vigorous bodies these, for they had powerful influences to contend against. Apathy, of course, and trepidation, for in those early times local authority was something to be reckoned with. Small and scattered population meant few and widely-separated schools, and communications were primitive. It was an undertaking to go from one town to another, even for a meeting with fellow teachers, and salaries were not such as allowed recklessness in travelling expenses. Yet in spite of difficulties several of the Associations maintained a continuous life.

The meetings were largely of the mutual-improvement kind, where the assembled company would listen to the exposition of some tried and proved method of dealing with some particular portion of the syllabus, and discussions and the exchanging of ideas and "tricks of the trade" would enable the less experienced to benefit by the skill of the expert craftsman.

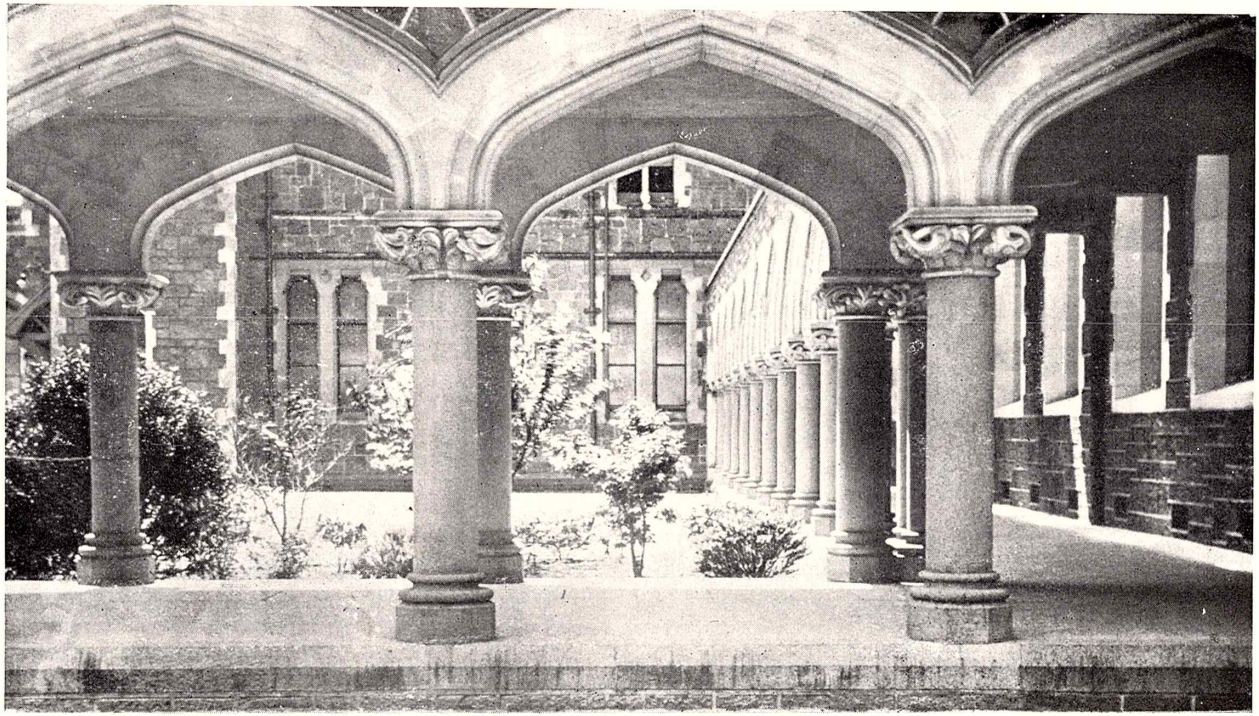
(1) Primary School Teachers.

The writer of these notes was present as a favoured sixth-standard boy at a meeting of teachers in the little village of Turakina where members had assembled from as far up and

down the coast as Wanganui and Foxton to hear a lesson on chemistry by the late Mr. Charles Hulke. On another occasion he borrowed a horse and rode forty miles to hear a lesson given on the teaching of the active and passive voice to a class of fourth standard children who had been induced to offer themselves for the purpose of a Saturday morning. Those are only instances of what was typical of those early days, but they gave indication of the spirit that has actuated the teaching body from that day to the present,—the effort, never remitted and only occasionally diverted to other pressing needs, to improve the work of the school, to make it more effective for the benefit of the pupils. Several of these early Associations have already celebrated their jubilee, but their purpose, though approached in different ways, is still the same.

Growth of population and improvement of means of communication gave rise to thoughts of more effective union of forces, and the idea of a colonial organization of teachers began to take root. The idea took bodily shape in 1883 when a small group of representatives from Associations "from Auckland to the Bluff" met in Christchurch. The result was the formation of the New Zealand Educational Institute, the name being borrowed from the Educational Institute of Scotland. It was only a small body—there are eighteen names on the roll of the first meeting, fifteen on the second and sixteen on the third—but it had a big heart and far-reaching mind. It is characteristic of the educational mind of the time that the early meetings of the Institute exemplified a state of things that we are only now struggling to recover—a recognition of the essential unity of educational effort, whether it be put forth in primary school, secondary school, or university.

The first meeting was attended by a Professor of the University and was presided over by the head of a secondary school. Thus all types of educational work then carried on in New



CANTERBURY COLLEGE CLOISTERS.

Zealand were represented at the birth of the Institute, and just as its birth was honourable, its character as displayed in its early actions was admirable. Its first deed, after calling itself into being, was to give itself a name, and to clothe itself with a constitution, and immediately after the name clause in the Constitution came this—"That the object of the Institute shall be to promote the interests of education within the Colony of New Zealand." It is now expressed in the briefer phrase "To advance the cause of Education generally," but in both forms it expresses the same idea, that the task to be done is the improving of education; and it was not for nearly twenty years that the second object was added to the purposes of the Institute, viz., "To uphold and maintain the just claims of its members individually and collectively." There is nothing antagonistic between these aims, but the fact that for so many years the former stood alone is a true index of the spirit and motives that have actuated and guided the operations of the Institute.

It may justly be claimed that the confidence felt by those with whom the Institute has had to deal, that it really stood up to its profession of faith, has been the source of the influence exerted by the Institute throughout its history. That influence has been exercised uniformly for the advancement of education, and if to secure that object it has been necessary to put forth some strenuous efforts on behalf of teachers as well as children, it cannot be regarded otherwise than as an entirely laudable course to pursue. For it is not on administration or syllabus or inspection that education depends—these are but conditions and accidental circumstances. It is the teacher that is the ultimate essential in every part of every education system, and all other circumstances are important only in so far as they help or hinder the teacher in his work.

From a comprehensive reading of the Institute's record of work it will be gathered that this has taken two main directions—first, improving conditions for the pupils, and second, raising the status of the teacher. Among the very earliest discussions at the annual meetings attacks were directed at the examination evil. In those days there was an individual examination of each child in each of the "pass" subjects, and the quality of the teacher and his work was assessed on the "percentage of passes." Freedom of classification, or the right of the teacher to promote his own pupils, was the goal aimed at, and it took over twenty years of persistent agitation to attain it. It would require a whole volume, not merely a single chapter, to describe in anything like detail the discussions, the reports, the arguments, the representations that the Institute has put before the authorities and before the public in its efforts to secure for the pupils in the schools such improvements as have made something like real education possible. There was the crushing burden of the syllabus to be lightened; medical inspection was prayed for; the hygienic conditions of schools came under criticism; the need of adequate playing spaces was stressed. At one period a vigorous protest was made on behalf of the young slaves of the cow in the dairying districts; and child labour is still claiming the sympathetic attention of teachers. These things can be no more than mentioned, as showing the direction in which much of the Institute's influence has been used. They account, too, for a large part of the influence that it has been able to exercise upon the public mind, for they have shown the spirit in which the teachers have approached their task, and have convinced the public of their good faith and of the reasonableness of their aims. As a result progress has been made,—slow progress in some directions, it is true—and is still being made. Smaller classes is the principal objective of the present day's efforts, for, though the eighties and nineties, even the hundreds, that were common

in classes of thirty years ago have been reduced to fifties and sixties, the task is not yet completed.

The status of the teaching service as a profession engaged in a most important social function has been the object of much of the Institute's activity. Until recent years education did not occupy a very high place in the regard of the general public, and the teaching service was not held in very high esteem. It was regarded, and treated, as the "Cinderella of the services." It was assumed that anyone who had a little learning was justified in becoming a teacher when nothing better was offering. The salaries were small, with a constant tendency to become smaller,—for Education Boards were chronically short of funds. The growth of population brought ever-increasing demands for new schools, for the providing of which funds were wanting. What better way than to transfer part of the "maintenance" fund, *i.e.* the salary fund, to the "building" fund? Hence repeated reductions in salaries and staffs. The process went on till the introduction of the Colonial Scale of Staffs and Salaries. There were other bug-bears. In 1894 the Executive of the Institute reported on the conditions that made the teaching service so unattractive, for it was a commonplace that no one would become a teacher who had the opportunity of entering any other service. The report gave as the reasons for this, insecurity of tenure, too many masters, liability to opprobrium and attack, uncertainty of promotion (merit and ability being no guarantee of justice in appointment). Another very serious evil which continued until quite recently was the division of the country into districts separated by barriers which could only very rarely be passed. To get into the service of one of the smaller districts meant for many a teacher professional exile for life.

Most of these evils have now been altogether remedied or at least greatly mitigated. The Teachers' Court of Appeal Act insured that a teacher could not be dismissed without good

reason, the grading system has almost abolished the district barriers; the salary scale is still below the general level of remuneration in the Dominion, but it is such that young people from the Colleges possessed of ability and feeling a "call" to the service may enter it with some degree of confidence; there are still many masters, but the improved quality of the service and the growing appreciation of education have removed most of the complaints under this head.

The result has been that the service has in these later years attracted a much improved type of recruit and the proportion of uncertified and unqualified teachers has fallen from nearly thirty three per cent. to about eight per cent., and as the only means of entry to the service now is through the Training colleges the day is not far distant when the unqualified teacher will have disappeared. Thus one of the great objects of the Institute is nearing complete attainment, viz., that every pupil should have the benefit of the services of trained and fully qualified teachers.

While carrying on its work the Institute has grown from strength to strength. Its beginnings were small. It was two years old before it had a hundred pounds to its credit in the bank, but its influence has ever depended less on its financial resources than on the value of its message and the reasonableness of its demands. For many years it held its annual meetings in different centres, so that in one district after another the public attention was directly challenged and its interest aroused in the cause of education. The public Press of the Dominion has uniformly given generous space to the Institutes proceedings, and sympathetic support to its proposals. On special occasions it has addressed its appeal directly to the people by circular to the annual meetings of householders. Since 1899 it has had the services of an official organ,—first the "*Journal of Education*" and since 1919 its own paper "*National Education.*" "More

and better education'' has been its watchword, and its task has been to preach the gospel of education to the general public, and especially to the parents of the pupils among whom and for whom the teachers perform their onerous duties. All its operations on behalf of teachers, all its proposals for amended administration, all its suggestions with regard to syllabus, school age, inspection, medical inspection, and so on, have been directed towards that one end. A great deal of what it has aimed at has been accomplished, and with the gaining of its ends it has gained the confidence of the public, and has increased its influence. Its membership steadily increases, and with its membership, its power to pursue new objects. There is no definite goal on the attainment of which effort may cease. Every advance in social thought or in educational science means new fields of work for the educator, so that the standard of the Institute's endeavour is continually advancing.

(2) Secondary Schools Teachers.

The Secondary Schools' Association has quite a long history though until recent years its stream of life was necessarily confined within narrow limits. Prior to the introduction of the free place system under the Seddon-Hogben regime the secondary schools had been few and small. There was, however, a distinct sense of corporate professional existence among the teachers, and this found expression in peripatetic meetings of what was called the Secondary Schools' Conference.

The first meeting of this body was held in Nelson as long ago as 1887, under the Chairmanship of Mr. Halkett Dawson of the Timaru High School, with Mr. W. Walton of Akaroa, later of Christchurch, as secretary, an office he held for the long period of 26 years,—truly a fine record of service to one's fellows.

The Conference was primarily a Conference of the heads of schools, though a certain proportion of assistants in accordance with the size of the school were eligible for election as members.

It was not till 1908 that the Conference encased itself in a definite constitution. This was something of a curiosity in its way. Under it each school sent to the meeting its headteacher and one or two assistants, according to size. The system of voting, however, secured the supremacy of the principals, for these had a plurality of votes in proportion to the size of the school so that both individually and collectively the principal could outvote the assistants.

It would appear at this distance of time that this constitution expressed and embodied a certain lack of sympathy and fellow-feeling between the heads of schools and the staffs, and this appearance gains in definiteness from the next development in the history of the Association. This was a meeting of assistants which was held in Wellington in 1911 at which was inaugurated the Secondary Schools' Assistants Association, its first secretary being Mr. Heine. The reasons which the Association gave out as the origin of its existence were chiefly the two great grievances under which the teachers in secondary schools laboured, first they had no security of tenure, second their salaries were very low and there was no fixed scale. Their eyes turned, perhaps with some degree of envy, to the primary side of the service, which in 1895 had secured a great protection to its tenure in the "Teachers' Incorporation and Court of Appeal Act," and in 1902 had achieved the Colonial Scale of Staffs and Salaries.

In 1919 Mr. Renner became secretary of the growing Association and he retained the office till his promotion to the rank of a principal in 1928. The secondary school teachers owe much to Mr. Renner not only for the length of his service but for the forcefulness and thoroughness that have characterized his work.

The newly formed Association was registered under the Act as an Incorporated Society of Teachers, whereby the secondary teachers were able, like their primary colleagues, to enjoy the benefits of the Teachers' Court of Appeal Act.

In 1919 a systematic agitation was set on foot to obtain improved conditions of service. Salaries were low; appointments were made largely by haphazard. These things must be altered, and they were altered. A conference called in 1919 by the Hon. Mr. Parr aided greatly towards the desired object, the result being a reasonable scale of salaries coupled with a system of grading of positions and teachers that put an end to the worst of the complaints in regard to appointments. Secondary teachers who are acquainted with the operations and negotiations leading up to this successful issue speak with gratitude of the valuable work done by Mr. T. R. Cresswell. His long experience as principal and as inspector supplied him with material which his great ability and untiring energy turned to good account.

Up to this point the Assistants' Association had been acting largely as a separate and independent unit. As early as 1914 there had been formed and registered a Secondary Schools' Principals' Association, and the two bodies had existed side by side but as distinct entities. In 1921, however, they combined their forces to form the New Zealand Secondary Schools' Association under a constitution that, while it preserves the life of each body for its own particular purposes, unites their forces for the wider general purposes of education. The combined Association acts through an executive consisting of a President appointed by the Principals, a vice-president appointed by the Assistants, and three members appointed by each body with a secretary elected in combined open meeting. Such a constitution is both elastic and closely knit, and operates to the complete satisfaction of those concerned.

(3) Technical School Teachers.

The first entry in the minute book of the Technical School Teachers' Association is this, "The first meeting of delegates from Technical Day School Staffs took place at Wellington

Technical College Library in July, 1914, in order to consider the Education Bill after the first reading.''

The meeting was so small that the roll may be quoted in full, —Messrs Armour (Wanganui), Niven (Napier), Neve (Auckland), and Park (Christchurch). The adage of the acorn applies, for from the little gathering has grown a vigorous and efficient society. There had been an earlier movement, as long ago as 1909, but for reasons not now remembered it came to nothing. The acorn of 1914, however, soon sprouted, and in April, 1915, was recorded the foundation of the New Zealand Technical School Teachers' Association (Registered). The Association had its lean years and its difficulties. Its members have always had to contend with the idea that technical schools and technical teachers are of lower grade than secondary schools and teachers. From an educational point of view nothing could be further from the truth, but the idea has been an incubus to the development of technical education. But in spite of discouragement the Association has by vigorous advocacy seen its work prospering more and more as the years have gone by.

One object dear to the heart of the Association, the recognition of Technical School training as part of the period of apprenticeship, has still to be striven for, but lack of success in this direction has been partly compensated by the institution this year of a system of technological examinations conducted in the Dominion. This sets the official seal of approval on that part of the work of the schools which more nearly accords with the word technical; and gives ground for the hope that further progress will bring further recognition.

The Association has had much success in its efforts to improve the conditions of service of its members. Contracts of service are now in the main satisfactory, and a grading system adapted to the requirements of the service has removed most of the grounds of complaint of earlier years.

Parallel with the Technical School Teachers' Association the Technical Schools' Conference has done much to advocate the cause of the schools. This is an organization composed of the Directors of Technical schools and members of the Boards, and thus represents a highly commendable step towards the unity of educational interests and forces. This spirit of unity, the identity of aims and objects is growing. It has its seasons of vigorous growth, and its periods of depression; but on the whole it is making progress. The Union of governing body and teachers in the one society may fairly be regarded as an indication of the larger union of the different societies in a comprehensive educational body worthy of the great task before it. Meanwhile the twin Technical Schools organizations pursue their particular paths. Though the youngest and smallest of the educational bodies they are not lacking in vigour, as is shown by the publication of their own journal, a periodical that reflects the greatest credit on all connected with it.

IN THE EARLY DAYS.

A Southland Inspector.

My introduction to field work was marked by the ceremony of baptism—not by fire, as in the case of most heroes, but by water. As I was proceeding to a school in the far South my driver attempted to negotiate a land-slide at rather an acute angle, probably thinking that the laws of gravity would be suspended for his special benefit; they were not. A moment later a sensible old horse was resting quietly on its side on the rocky road and two humans were plumbing the depths of the estuary. The cushion of the gig floated out to sea, but I was lucky in retrieving my new hat which was likewise proceeding seaward. A bulky pocket-book saved my ribs as I struck the rocks on my descent. My driver was not so fortunate, his face having to be extensively patched with plaster obtained at a sawmill nearby. For the rest of the journey we sat in the gig drenched to the waist. The kindly old teacher furnished us with what dry clothing he could, and brought forth refreshments suitable to the occasion.

On a subsequent visit my driver lost his way among the sandhills, and in his endeavour to keep the buggy from capsizing exhibited linguistic powers of which I had never considered him capable. We reached the school to find all the adults of the neighbourhood, including the teacher, black as niggers, hard at work fighting a bush fire. They had been out all night. The youngsters were in their element, too, carrying tea to the fire fighters. Needless to say the examination was postponed *sine die*.

One of my most interesting journeys was to a small school near the base of a great alpine peak where three education districts met. A heroic woman here for many years educated her own family up to standard IV., boarding them out afterwards at the nearest town for the completion of their education. Starting at six on a fine summer morning my driver and I arrived at a station miles distant for breakfast. Thereafter, the road led by and across two rivers with treacherous quicksands. The husband of the teacher, who was away from home when we started, had advised us to follow his trail which proved, however, to be a task more suitable for Red Indians or black trackers.

In spite of this, we accomplished the journey safely, and were soon seated at dinner. In the case of the older children the examination was easy, but shyness made it rather hard to examine the younger one, who was moreover suffering from a gumboil. A box of chocolates, diplomatically exhibited, soon solved the difficulty and we parted from the youngsters and their mother on terms of the warmest friendship. A few years afterwards, the mother was drowned when crossing a river alone. She was of a type of which New Zealand may well be proud.

The following day was a Sunday, and for the first and only time I examined a school on the Day of Rest. She was a darling girl of about six, and sat on my knee during the examination. May I be forgiven!

On one of my visits to a seaside school, the genial old teacher shouted to the boys "Kape away boys! never come near the rare of a harse till you know his timperamint." Driving out on a very hilly road once, I discovered the truth of this maxim. I was congratulating myself on having an extremely quiet horse. He plodded on regardless of the noise of machinery, barking dogs and flying scraps of paper. Nothing seemed to ruffle his placidity. The first banked-over gully we

arrived at, however, he swerved so swiftly across the road that he nearly landed me at the bottom. We had met a buggy, and I found out afterwards that the previous week he had had a collision with just such a buggy, so one requires to know not only the temperament but the personal history of the animal one drives.

It is remarkable what a wonderful influence the personality of the teacher has, not only on the character of his pupils, but on the environment of the school. I can recall two schools in adjoining school districts, both peopled with prosperous dairy farmers. The playground of the one was a perfect picture—school grounds beautifully laid out in trees, shrubs and flowers, liberal provision made for games and for midday meals, and cleanliness and tidyness apparent in all buildings and outhouses. The grounds of the other were exactly the opposite; time after time I had to report adversely on their state. The teacher of course blamed the committee. How then did the neighbouring teacher induce her committee to contribute so liberally to the beautification of the grounds?

Punctuality is a virtue not practised as extensively as it should be in country districts. Indeed in many places the Church and the school are the only institutions punctually conducted. I made a point of testing the punctuality of teachers by arriving at schools slightly before the opening hour to take notes. On one occasion, arriving at a remote school at the hour of opening, I found the boys flocked around to help with the horse, but no teacher in sight. Looking over the fence, however, I saw the teacher at the door of his little wooden hut in trousers and shirt performing his morning ablutions. His face, plentifully soaped as he raised it to see what the fuss was about, was a study for a painter.

The menu at some of the country accommodation houses requires careful study. I once selected for tea a dish called "tripe patty." A small sample sufficed me. I was not in the

least astonished when stalwart bush hands failed to call for a "return." Another dish favoured by a landlady in the same district was poached eggs on mince, the mince being of various ages, colours and flavours, conjoined with strong onions in the proportion of 50-50. I picked the egg off very gingerly, and when my landlady proposed the same dish for the following morning I very hastily declined to put her to the trouble of preparing it. A plain boiled egg would do quite well, I told her. At the very next place I visited, the landlady again endeavoured to make me acquainted with eggs on mince, but without success.

On one occasion I was inspecting a standard one class when I found there was some difficulty about the formation of the plurals of words ending with "y." Rapidly writing a number of such words on the blackboard I asked the class, in simple language, what similarity could be observed among the words so written. The answer was prompt "Please Sir," lisped her ladyship, of seven "they're all bad writing."

The farmers of Southland are vigorous and progressive in the pursuit of their labours, at least so apparently thought a lad who was writing an essay on "Deserts." He described deserts very well and added—"If there were deserts in Southland they would not be deserts long. The farmers would soon get the double-furrow plough into them."

The kindness and hospitality of the people of this district are delightful. I remember one very hot summer day cycling to a country school on the coast; the road seemed to be all turnings. Asking an old lady at a farmhouse if I were on the right way, she replied, "No, but I will set you right, but you look very warm, come in and have a cup of tea in the kitchen if you don't mind. I'm baking scones to-day." To every rule, however, there are exceptions. A request having been made that an Inspector should visit a household school in the remote backblocks instead of requiring the pupils to come to the

nearest large school, I agreed to go. I nearly capsized the gig when crossing the creek, but reached the homestead safely. Though my arrival was noticed no one came to help me unyoke, feed and dispose of the horse for the night. After tea, in the kitchen dining room, I asked for permission to smoke, which was curtly refused me. (Later in the evening I saw a dirty old clay in the bedroom allotted me.) Later the teacher took me to the school-room (a hut not far away) to examine written work, and incidentally I enjoyed a soothing pipe. By a somewhat curious coincidence that school was never subsequently visited by an Inspector.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILD WELFARE.

J. Beck, Superintendent, Child Welfare Branch.

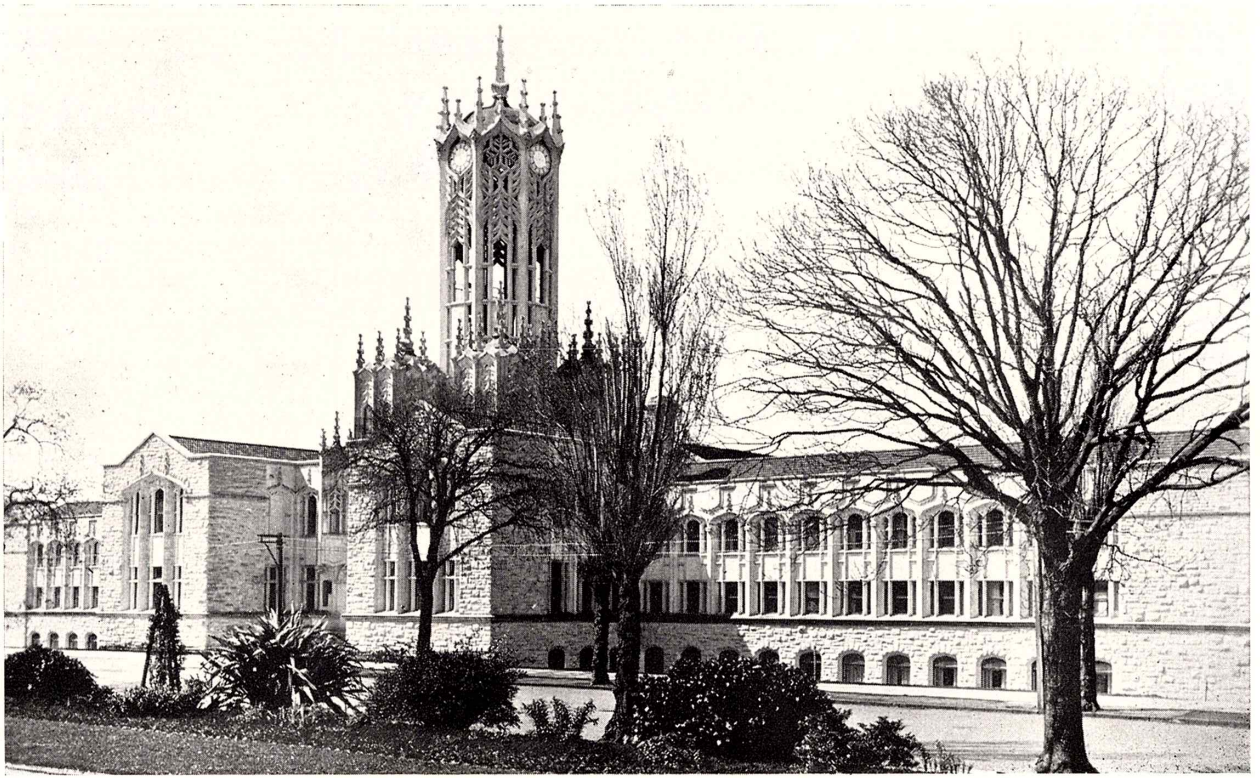
In the space at my disposal it would be a difficult task to trace in much detail the history of the system of dealing with neglected, dependent and delinquent children. So far as can be ascertained the first legal enactment was "The Neglected and Criminal Children's Act, 1867." Under the provisions of this Act, which is cited as "an Act to provide for the care and custody of neglected and criminal children," there was provision for the Superintendent of any Province in New Zealand to establish separate industrial schools for males or females exclusively where children under the age of 15 years could be committed for any period not less than one year or more than seven years. This Act was amended in 1870 by providing for the placing out of inmates of institutions at service, and another amendment in 1873 provided for the master of each Industrial School to act in loco parentis in cases where parents of immoral and dissolute habits were unfit to have the guardianship of their children. The Caversham Industrial School was established under the first mentioned Act in January, 1869, and the Burnham Industrial School in 1873, but up to April, 1880, the control of these schools was in the hands of the Justice Department. On that date the control was transferred to the Education Department.

In 1874 the Naval Training Schools Act was passed, providing for the training on ships of boys between the ages of ten and fourteen years, committed by Magistrates for reasons varying from vagrancy to association with bad companions. Boys could be detained on such Training Ships up to the age of 15 years, but later on provision was made for placing at trades

boys unfitted for sea service, provided they were not under 12 or over 18 years of age. Under this act the Kohimarama Naval Training School was established in December, 1874, and remained under the control of the Marine Department until the 29th July, 1880, when it was transferred to the Education Department.

Numerous other institutions for the reception, education, and training of orphan, neglected, and destitute children in various parts of the colony were established and maintained or largely subsidised out of the Vote for Charitable Institutions administered by the Colonial Secretary. About the same time all these institutions were placed under the inspection of the Education Department, but their affairs continued to be administered by local bodies or managers. Such Institutions included the Howe Street Industrial School for Boys and Girls, St. Stephens Orphans Home, Parnell, St. Mary's Orphanage Industrial School, Ponsonby (for girls), Thames Orphanage and Training School for boys and girls; in Wellington, St. Joseph's Providence Orphanage for Girls; in Nelson, St. Mary's Orphanage Industrial School and the Motueka Orphanage; in Canterbury, the Middleton Orphanage for Boys and Girls; and in Otago, the Benevolent Institution, Dunedin, for boys and girls. On the 1st April, 1881, the Howe Street Home (known later as the Auckland Industrial School) was taken over by the Department and maintained in the same way as Burnham and Caversham.

In 1882 the Industrial Schools Act was passed and all the previous Acts dealing with neglected and criminal children and with the establishment of Naval Training Schools were repealed. The Industrial Schools Act provided for the boarding out of children in foster homes and for the guardianship of inmates being vested in the manager of the school concerned up to the age of 21 years if necessary. The changes of the greatest practical importance in the administration of the in-



AUCKLAND UNIVERSITY COLLEGE.

dustrial schools, effected by the passing of the Industrial Schools Act, 1882, are those which relate to the boarding out of young children with respectable foster parents and the extending where necessary of the period of the manager's legal guardianship over the children until the age of twenty-one. To assist in carrying out the boarding-out system, lady official correspondents and lady official visitors were appointed for Burnham, Caversham, and Auckland.

An Industrial Schools Amending Act was passed in 1895, the principal provisions of which were the raising of the age of a child boarded out for whom payment could be made, from 12 to 14 years, and the administration by the Public Trustee of any property to which any inmate was, or became, entitled.

In 1900 the whole Industrial Schools system was reviewed and some very important changes were effected in the direction of providing for the extension of the boarding-out system, for better classification by the separation of the sexes in institutions, and for the establishment of reformatories as distinct from industrial schools for the more difficult types of young people. Provision was also made for the establishemnt of two Receiving Homes for children in Wellington and Christchurch. As a result of these changes the Burnham Industrial School was reserved as a Reformatory for Boys, a new Institution known as Te Oranga Home was established as a Reformatory for Girls and steps were taken to establish a Training Farm Industrial School for Boys in the Levin district. Subsequently this Institution was opened in 1905 by removing the boys from the Caversham School which remained as a School for Girls.

In 1900 the appointment was made of two Inspectors of Industrial Schools, one being the Officer in Charge of the Special Schools Branch, then Mr. R. H. Pope. Provision was also made for the appointment of a male visiting officer whose duty it was to visit boys placed out at service from industrial

schools. Later on a lady inspector and visiting officer was also appointed for the purpose of visiting girls in situations and children boarded out. This visiting was, of course, in addition to the actual visits paid by the managers of industrial schools who, as the legal guardians of the children, were required to keep in regular contact with them in their foster homes or places of employment. Prior to this a great deal of valuable work was carried out by the Police, not only in visiting inmates placed out but also in the registration of foster homes for children placed out privately.

In the session of 1907 the Infant Life Protection Act was remodelled and its administration transferred from the Police to the Education Department. The purpose of this Act was to provide supervision and protection for infants under the age of six years boarded out by their parents or guardians for payment or reward. The Act provided for the licensing of all foster homes where infants under the age of six were received or maintained apart from their parents or guardians for more than seven consecutive days. It was also provided that any premium approved by the Court on the adoption of an infant could not be disbursed except on the terms approved by the Department.

Women officers, being trained nurses preferably with special training in infant welfare, have been appointed to deal with the registration of homes and work among infants. These officers also make enquiry into cases for adoption of children and of all illegitimate births, with a view to seeing that the interest of the child is safeguarded.

In the year 1913 the Industrial Schools system was again reviewed, with the object of providing something in the nature of a juvenile probation scheme for the purpose of dealing with young male delinquents by means of supervision in the community, rather than by having them committed to institutions. The system of juvenile probation was really instituted by Mr.

F. V. Fraser, then Stipendiary Magistrate in Auckland, and in order to meet the needs in this direction a Juvenile Probation Officer was appointed for Auckland City and District. The working of this system in Auckland proved to be very successful and later on during the War period, when the number of children and young people to be provided for in institutions increased to such an extent that it was necessary to consider the establishment of further institutions, the Department appointed officers in other parts of the Dominion to co-operate with the Magistrates.

The results have fully justified this part of the scheme of child welfare. By this means the committals of children to institutions were reduced very considerably and it was found that of those who were left in their own homes under supervision fully 95 per cent. gave no further trouble. This scheme, combined with a more intensive boarding-out system, resulted in the closing down of four institutions—Auckland, Burnham, Te Oranga Home, and Stoke, and the reduction of the number at Caversham and at the Boys' Training Farm, Weraroa, by two-thirds. In place of the large institutions it was necessary, of course, to establish small Receiving Homes or Clearing-houses—separate institutions for boys and girls. We have at the present time separate Homes for boys and girls in each of the four main centres and Receiving Homes at Napier, Wanganui, and Hamilton. In addition, there are two other Government institutions, one at Weraroa for boys and one at Burwood, near Christchurch, for girls. These two institutions are intended primarily for the detention for correctional purposes, for longer or shorter periods as the case may be, of inmates who have not proved amenable to the ordinary methods of dealing with children, and require a period of training before being tried in the community.

The passing of the Child Welfare Act in 1925 marked the beginning of a new era in the development of the scheme of

child welfare in the Dominion. This Act was designed to make better provision with respect to the maintenance, care, and control of children who are specially under the protection of the State, and to provide generally for the protection and training of indigent, neglected or delinquent children. Perhaps two of the more important provisions in the Act were the establishment of Children's Courts, to be presided over by specially appointed Stipendiary Magistrates or Justices, and the placing on a proper legal basis of the previous informal system of juvenile probation, which had been in process of development since the year 1912. Provision was also made for the appointment of honorary associates of either sex, for the purpose of considering all the facts concerning children brought before the Courts and to advise the presiding Magistrate. The appointment of Child Welfare Officers for the investigation of all such cases was also provided for, and in addition to the regular field officers employed by the Depart- this great social work. Their co-operation is most valuable. in the public schools also assist very materially in carrying on fare officers have been utilized to a great extent. The teachers ment the services of private individuals as honorary child wel-

The soundness of the principle of having separate Courts for the trial of children's cases is now universally recognized and the general view taken in regard to the offending child is that the "purpose of the proceeding should not be punishment but correction of conditions, care and protection, and the prevention of a recurrence of such conditions through the constructive work of the Court." Under this theory the Court becomes the concrete expression of the State's obligation to the child, with the recognition that the child is in Court as the result of conditions not of his own making and that he has a valid claim against the State and is to be saved to it, not punished by it. Emphasis should be laid, not on the actual offence committed by the child, although of course this should

be taken into consideration, but on the social facts and circumstances that are really the inducing causes of the child's appearance in Court. The whole purpose of the proceedings in these Courts is not punishment exactly but more the correction of conditions, the care and protection of the child, and the prevention of a recurrence of such conduct by means of social reconstruction work carried out by social welfare officers.

Other important sections in the Child Welfare Act provided for the greater protection of infants of unmarried mothers, and for the assistance and guidance of the mothers themselves by child welfare officers, who are authorized to investigate each case and to render such assistance as is required, either in placing the child in a suitable foster home or in advising the mother in the matter of affiliation proceedings, or in assisting her in obtaining employment.

With the extension of the work in the social field the State has endeavoured to obtain the assistance as far as possible of private organizations in its work of investigating and supervising cases of children or families or young persons who are brought under notice. In this manner the "Big Brother" movement of the Young Men's Christian Association and of the Roman Catholic Church has been established. Under such a scheme the majority of the young male delinquents who are dealt with by the Children's Courts are supervised, with excellent results.

This article, descriptive of the work of the Child Welfare Branch, would be incomplete without reference also to the wonderful work performed by denominational and private and benevolent bodies, who—co-existent with State effort and no doubt antecedent to it—have established orphanages and similar institutions for children and young people and are actively engaged in constructive work among the young people of the Dominion. Their co-operation with the Department is gratefully acknowledged.

During last year an Amending Act was passed, providing for the registration and inspection of all private institutions, orphanages, etc., dealing with children. Other important provisions were the simplification of Court procedure in dealing with juveniles and the raising of the age of a child from 16 to 17 years; that is to say any young person under 17 who offends against the law, or becomes uncontrollable, or is living in an unsuitable environment may be dealt with in the privacy of the Children's Court.

In these days the institution plays a very minor (though important) part in the scheme of child welfare. It is realized that wherever possible the child should grow up in the community or be returned to it as soon as conditions are favourable. It is most important, of course, wherever possible to prevent the growth of conditions that lead to pauperism and criminality, and efforts are being more and more concentrated on this phase of the work, in an endeavour to check in the early stages the development of conditions in the social field that lead or are likely to lead to child wastage. Where this is not possible, active steps are taken to provide social readjustment for the child or young person who by reason of his environment or physical or mental condition is handicapped in the race of life and likely to become a burden on the community.

The Child Welfare Branch is also entrusted with the management of institutions established for the maintenance and training of afflicted children (deaf and feeble-minded), for the compulsory education of whom between the ages of six and twenty-one years, legislation was passed in 1907. For the education of deaf children, the School for the Deaf at Sumner has been in existence since March, 1880, and for mentally backward boys the residential special Institute at Otekaike, near Oamaru, was established in 1908. A similar institution for girls was opened at Richmond, near Nelson, in 1917.

SIDELIGHTS ON THE EARLY DAYS.

1882: We find the Editor of a paper in a quandary. Here is an extract from his editorial:

> "The Government has £1,000 at their disposal for the promotion of technical education. How is this money to be spent?"

1883: The outstanding educational event of the year 1883 seems to have been the splitting of the Westland Education Board district into two—the Grey Education District and the Westland Education District, due to the fact that Greymouth and not Hokitika was the headquarters of the district. The trouble arose through the Hokitika School Committee closing its school in opposition to the wishes of the Board. The Board sent along Mr. Smith, its inspector, to re-open the school, but he was forcibly and rather ignominiously ejected from the building. Slightly Bolshevic, particularly in Anno Domini 1883!

1884: The educational records of the year 1884 contain the following:—A teacher in the Auckland district, Otonga School, complained to the Board that when a schoolboy sent by him with four absentee notices attempted to hand them to the father of the absentees, the father froduced a revolver, whereupon the boy fled. Complaint was made to the Board, but the Board stated that it had no authority to intervene. Wise Board!

1885: Times have apparently changed somewhat since 1885. In June of this year the "*New Zealand Schoolmaster,*" at that time the more or less official organ of the New Zealand Educational Institute, remarked: "The new syllabus has been drawn up, we understand, by the Minister of Education himself, though

it is announced that some teachers were consulted. Who were they? Should they not have been the executive of the New Zealand Institute?''

1886: School residences appear to have been somewhat rudimentary on the West Coast of the South Island in the 'eighties, as witness the following extract from a School Committee's letter to the Education Board:—

> ''The teacher is living in a hut in the immediate vicinity of the school. The hut was purchased by him for £1, and he has expended upon it the sum of £2 10s. in procuring tongued and grooved timber for lining. The necessary labour was performed by himself. He has also made a very good swing for the children and an easel for the school. As he has shown a disposition to make the best of the circumstances, I beg to recommend refund of the sum of £3 10s. expended by him on the hut. If a new school is built, the hut will be handy as a fowl-house.''

EDUCATION—PAST AND PRESENT.

JOHN NEILL—late Secretary of the Southland Education Board.

[Mr. John Neill joined the Education service six years prior to the coming into operation of the Education Act, 1877.—Ed.]

In the first place I would like to institute a brief comparison of the old Provincial system with that of the present. In doing so, one cannot help noting the change in the syllabus of the old Provincial days with that of the present system. Prior to the year 1878 the course of instruction, as I remember it, was confined almost entirely to imparting a thorough knowledge of the three R's, in striking contrast with the present comprehensive syllabus with its multiplicity of subjects. I bear willing testimony to the devotion of the self-sacrificing band of pioneer teachers who came from the Mother Land at the invitation of the various Provincial Governments; men who, with very imperfect equipment in the way of primitive school buildings and apparatus, yet did yeoman service in laying the foundations of a system now recognized as in the forefront amongst the nations. In this connexion I would mention the name of the late Dr. John Hislop who, first as teacher, and subsequently as Secretary and Inspector of the Otago Education Board, and who, later still, as Secretary to the Central Department from 1878 onwards, rendered such unique and altogether signal service to the cause of Education. Space forbids, otherwise I might write pages expressive of my admiration for the genial old man who in these early days was the friend and counsellor of all who were privileged to come within the sphere of his influence. I cherish as a sacred possession the memory of his friendship, wise council, and gracious, winning personality.

Speaking of a later experience, first as a teacher and later as Secretary of an Education Board, I may venture to express an opinion generally respecting teachers and School Committees in so far as they are factors in our educational machinery. First, then, speaking in general terms, I think that our Dominion has infinite reason to be proud of the capable and trustworthy men, and no less reliable and capable women, who, as teachers, are entrusted with the educational welfare of the rising generation. Comparing the present with the past teaching staff, one cannot but acknowledge the vast improvement, especially in literary attainment, in favour of the former. This is, in large measure, no doubt attributable to the greater facilities which during recent years exist for the education and training of those desirous of entering on scholastic careers.

Of school committees my experience has been that much useful, though not always appreciated, service has been rendered to the community during the past half-century; and even yet, with greatly restricted powers, they are still capable of really useful and effective service forming, as they do, a connecting link between parents, Boards, and the central authorities. In the past large sums of money—amounting in the aggregate to many thousands of pounds—have by local effort been contributed by parents and others, per medium of School Committees, the expenditure of which subsidized by Government grants, has provided many conveniences for the comfort of teachers and pupils, as well as for the improvement and beautification of school grounds. It is true that from School Committees the power of the selection of teachers has been (wisely, I think) withdrawn. I recall many instances where this power was exercised unjustly in the interest of those most intimately concerned—the teacher, whose superior claims to the appointment were ignored, another of inferior status being recommended for the position. Local prejudice has been responsible for many such mistakes in the past by School Committees.

MY FIRST APPOINTMENT.

D. C. Brown.

In the Backblocks of the then Roadless North.

To-day a teacher is able, in one day, to travel by train and motor-car from Auckland to Kaitaia or adjacent settlements in the far north. Forty years ago such a journey took the writer nearly a week—from Monday evening till Saturday mid-day.

Instead of using train and service-car I sailed on coastal steamers to a place where I secured a Maori pony which performed an initiatory ceremony by bucking me off over his head. As the clay road was several inches deep in dust no bones were broken. Part of this trip was made in a bullock-dray which was a weariness to the flesh: however one learned something of the patience of the bullock and the "language" of the driver.

Going supperless to bed at 11 p.m. I slept the sleep of the weary on the hard floor of a gum shed, breakfasted next morning and tramped 12 miles over the hills to my destination.

THE HUMOROUS SIDE.

A schoolmaster named Bird (not, by the way, our present Chief Inspector) was unpopular because of his quick temper. One morning his pupils wrote on the board:

"Hail to thee, blithe spirit,
Bird thou never wert!"

Two minutes later Mr. Bird stalked in, glared at the board, glared at his class, and snapped: "Who wrote that?" Twenty hands went up, and twenty voices replied: "Please, sir, Shelley."

PRESENT TREND OF EDUCATION.

T. B. STRONG, M.A., B.Sc., DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION.

The question, "What is the present trend of Education in New Zealand?" is one that is frequently on the lips of the puzzled taxpayer, who, absorbed as he is in a struggle to present a satisfactory balance-sheet, be it humble or imposing, is inclined to measure in a very material way the product of our educational system. The answer we are sure to get from a large section of the public is that if the system is not on its way "to the dogs" it is not at any rate as good as the system was "when I was a boy." Let me attempt to reassure and hence to comfort the pessimists. We may be passing through a period of degeneration in pictorial art (I dare not say we are) and in literature, but there is not the slightest doubt that the education of the child was never on such a high level as it is to-day. Samuel Johnson thought that there was nothing further to be learned about education than was known in his day; but, though a backward glance must convince anyone that we have made a wonderful advance since Johnson's time, no one would be so absurd as to assert that the summit of perfection has yet been reached.

Before attempting to indicate the trend of present-day education it may be profitable and interesting to review the advance that has been made during the last forty years. I have a vivid recollection of the old-fashioned parish school I first attended in England. There was one huge room holding a large number of classes, the pupils being seated on backless forms. The books, printed in small type, were dry and uninteresting. In the readers, moral lessons predominated. History books

contained little more than the bald facts and were never read for pleasure. Arithmetic consisted mainly in the manipulation of more or less meaningless numbers. The idea of "learning by doing" was unknown, the more aesthetic side of education was conspicuous by its absence. The school was not supposed to be a place where the child would be happy; the educational process was a painful process, a disciplinary process, a process in which the child played an unwilling part. The teacher was the mentor, the task-master, not the "guide, philosopher and friend," least of all the friend. Teaching was not regarded as an art. How could it be when any broken-down soldier or sailor, any moderately well educated old dame or "stickit" minister was considered good enough for the work. I am told that the teaching profession in England suffers even to the present day the humiliating effects of the old-time perfunctory provision for the education of the masses. There are still localities in England where the teacher has little or no social standing. In the Dominions, fortunately, the trend has been for the teacher to occupy an honoured position in society, and this fact has undoubtedly operated to the benefit of the schools. One cause, or it may be the effect of this, is the high social regard in which our "public schools" are held. Wherever you may go you will find the children of rich and poor side by side, the child of the Cabinet Minister, of the Clergyman or the University Professor occupying the same public school bench as the child of the street sweeper or the casual labourer, and long may such democratic ideas flourish in the land.

But the greatest change of all is to be found in the school itself. There are now few children who are not happy at school. The teacher is no longer regarded as the child's traditional enemy. He and the child are comrades alike in work as in play. Games are organized, school picnics, school concerts, and school excursions bring teacher and taught together in friendly co-operative effort. In his school work the teacher does not regard

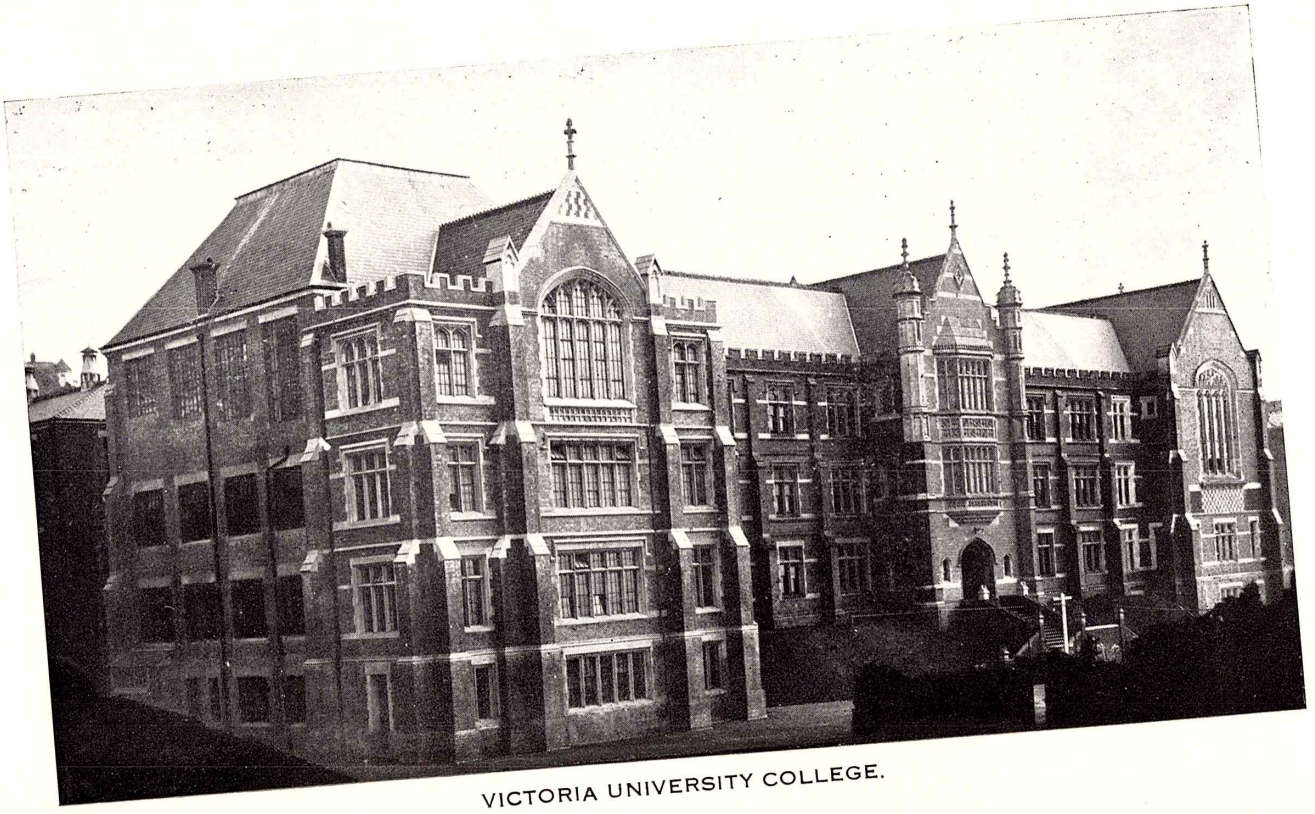
himself as a mere machine for stuffing the child's mind, or shall we say, memory, as full as possible of dry and unrelated facts. The teacher whose work is in harmony with present-day ideals leads the child to acquire knowledge for himself. The teacher regards himself as the guide to help the child to direct his efforts aright. The teacher provides subjects of a sufficiently varied character to enable the child to develop his various aptitudes and talents. Memorizing of facts has its place, but is not the be all and end all of school work. School books are in themselves more interesting to the child than ever they were. Publisher vies with publisher in the production of books that will attract the child to the path along which knowledge may be found. Punishments are not a hundredth part as common or as severe as they were forty years ago. There is not the need now that there was then for strict discipline; the child has learnt self-control in school; he is as full of life as ever he was, but he does not look on the teacher as his natural enemy. I freely acknowledge that there are still juvenile delinquents who appear before our children's courts, but it must be remembered that the school has the child for only about one-fifth of his waking hours, and society has him for the remaining four-fifths. The school is not responsible for the evil effects of some of the moving pictures shown to children, nor for the pernicious literature that falls into their hands, nor for the breakdown of home life. Let society outside the school organization think a little about its own responsibilities towards the child. I have no hesitation in saying that the child as he leaves school is the most enthusiastic social reformer you could find; his ideals are noble ideals, and he would, if he could, make short work of some of our social troubles. He is loyal to his King, yet full of ideas about the rights of the people. I am, of course, speaking generally of the school child of to-day. We have not yet succeeded in breeding a race of angels, and are a long way from doing so; but what I

assert is that the school product of to-day is, taking it on the whole, a better social product than the generality of young people half a century ago. I am well aware of the dark clouds of criticism that may burst above my head when these statements are read. It matters not. We, whose business has been with the schoolboy and schoolgirl of at least a quarter of a century, know how much they have changed, how much the teachers have changed, how much all that pertains to the school has changed.

Which brings me to my main purpose—to indicate the trend of present-day education. As far as the primary schools are concerned there is no doubt that the most strongly marked tendency is towards an individualizing of the teaching. Mass methods of production are spreading in the commercial world, but in the schools there is the opposite tendency, and more and more attention is being given to the individual child, his peculiarities of temperament, his special aptitudes, his individual difficulties in acquiring knowledge. True, every schoolroom is not an ideal place for the teacher to individualize his instruction; many rooms are too large or too small, and many classes are too large. No class should contain more than 40 pupils, better still 30, and steady progress has been made towards the former ideal. In 1924 there were only 610 classes with not more than 40 pupils; in February of this year (1928) there were 972 such classes. Our readers may be interested to learn how it is that the tendency towards reducing the size of classes has been so slow in operating. A visit to any old-fashioned school building that has not yet been remodelled will supply the answer. Years ago the recognised practice in school organization was to place a trained teacher in charge of a large class and to give him the assistance of one or two pupil teachers who were mere teacher apprentices. These assisted the class teacher by taking small drafts of the better pupils into small adjoining rooms. The educational authorities of the day thought, with Dr. Johnson,

that the summit of perfection had been reached in school organization and in school architecture, and consequently built stone and brick buildings strong as fortresses and as difficult to alter. When pupil teachers passed away and trained assistants took their place, it was difficult to place them suitably in such an unsuitable building. Until sufficient money was available to effect expensive alterations two teachers must work in one room, while others had to be given tiny classes in the small rooms formerly occupied by pupil teachers. Many an assistant preferred to have his large class to himself rather than endure the confusion of sound and the racking of the nerves caused by two classes attempting to work where only one should have been. However, expensive though the remodelling of old schools has become, the tendency to better the conditions under which teachers and children work has not been checked, but, on the contrary, has been accelerated by the present Minister of Education, the Hon. R. A. Wright. Within the short space of a year no less than 105 buildings have actually been remodelled or their remodelling has been authorized.

It is worth while pointing out at this stage that if the people of the Dominion will give free course to another marked tendency to change they will effect two reforms at one operation. The tendency I refer to is the tendency to introduce a new system of school organization wherby the pupils of Standards V. and VI. would be transferred either to separate Junior High Schools or to High Schools proper. It is obvious that if this were done the accommodation set free in the primary schools would enable the remaining classes to be split up and to be comfortably housed in separate rooms with separate teachers. Thus expensive remodelling would be avoided. I shall pursue the Junior High School theme later on in this article. Suffice to say that against the cost of the establishment of new Junior High Schools must be set the savings effected by avoiding the remodelling of some of the existing primary schools.



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A further tendency in building schools is to provide more floor space, larger windows and better appliances for aiding ventilation. Forced ventilation has never found favour in this country, and indeed so mild and equable is our climate that such systems of ventilation are not needed. In every new building windows are lower than they were thirty or forty years ago, and no frosting is provided to prevent pupils from interesting themselves more in the outside world than in their lessons. Of course not: the present day child finds his lessons too interesting and too absorbing to bother about passers-by. In this respect the modern school building reflects the changed attitude of the teacher towards the child, and the child towards his lessons. Cross-ventilation is considered indispensable. There must be a free passage of fresh air along a flat ceiling from one side of the room to the other. Our readers will remember the vaulted ceiling of the old-time schoolroom, a legacy of ecclesiastical influence, a vaulted ceiling with an ineffective ventilator in the roof, and an immense pocket of dead air. Windows are now carried as close to the ceiling as possible, as they should be in our own dwellings. Nowadays almost the whole of the left wall, the right wall from the position of the teacher, is composed of windows. Consider the old buildings of your day and mine, with their narrow windows placed not so much to give adequate light as to satisfy the architects ideas of symmetry in the construction of his building. Many of the windows were narrow, and sunk deep in thick walls; others were placed at the back of the children, who were thus writing in their own shadows. Many a teacher's eyesight was ruined after years of teaching with the glare of light right in his eyes. These are some of the more striking changes in school architecture, and whence came they? Undoubtedly they came as a result of the modern tendency towards healthy living. We live in an age that science has taught to value clean living: fresh air, pure water, clean bodies, clean clothing, clean dwellings, and let us hope clean schools.

It is this tendency to give thought to the health both of the teacher and the pupil that has led to the designing of fresh-air schools and well-lighted Schools. The tendency finds its expression in the desire for open-air schools, schools whose covering and whose walls are the leafy trees and whose carpet is the green grass. An excellent ideal and worthy of all encouragement, ideal for the small school, not so easy of realization in a large school with its complex organization.

And with this tendency to live and work in the open air has come the demand for larger school grounds. Our worthy forbears, coming as so many of them did from congested centres of population in the Old Country, and regarding the schoolroom as a place where the stern discipline of the teacher should constrain the child to learn, saw no necessity for much more ground than was necessary for the school building itself. Hence school sites of more than an acre were rarely provided. These are quite useless for the organized games so characteristic of the modern school. Such lack of foresight has cost the country many thousands of pounds in the endeavour to provide for the city child sufficient breathing space. In every city in New Zealand the same error was made with like result.

A glance at the furniture in a modern school reveals another tendency of the times, namely, to provide suitable seating for the individual child. In your time and my time the desks were eight or ten feet long with backless forms and with little or no variation in size, so far at all events as the standard classes were concerned. Here, too, the attitude of the teacher towards his pupils was revealed. The long desk was quite suitable for a child who while at school was expected to remain where he was put, to be seen and not heard. Whether the size of the desk was unsuited to the child, and whether it tended to produce spinal curvature and constricted lungs was not the concern either of the teacher or of his masters, the Board or the Government. We simply did not think about such matters in those days. What a

change! The dual desk of varying sizes and, wherever possible, the single desk, where the pupil can work in comfort and move without disturbing his companions, the easily-moved table and chair, the mats where the "primers" can lie and read or write or build castles in the air. What is the meaning of it all? One word gives the answer: Freedom. The tendency in the modern schoolroom is to regard it as a workroom, a workshop where the tools of learning are for convenience housed for the time being, a room but still part and parcel of the outside world, not a prison for saddened souls, not a retreat where silence must reign, but a place where pupil and teacher meet to work happily together, a place enlivened by song, by spirited discussions, by freedom of movement. It is quite true: the school architecture and the school furniture reflect most vividly the educational thought and tendencies of the time.

Whither then is this freedom leading us? As I see it, it is leading to the development of greater independence of thought on the part of the young, the development of greater power of initiative and to the fuller unfolding of the child's capacity for citizenship. True, the modern child seems to some less respectful to and certainly less fearful of his superiors. The little child in the infants' classes will sit down on a mat beside the Inspector and tell him all about his number work, his brick-building and his household pets. Two young training college students came without hesitation to the Director of Education and talked for twenty minutes about their aspirations. Such freedom is delightful. It may have existed in times past, but it was a rare flower.

Let not my readers suppose that this tendency towards freedom is always allowed free course. Not at all; there are still teachers, even some of the newer generation, who, following time-honoured tradition, hinder the free development of their pupils, stifle spontaneity of expression, and are most satisfied when the child follows blindfold whithersoever they lead. They

indeed fear freedom for themselves and feel safer when enthroned in the classroom than under the free air of heaven. To such teachers the provision of a type of instruction that necessitates the child moving freely about the schoolroom and in and out of school according as his work demands would be abhorrent. Nevertheless, this tendency towards freedom is clearly noticeable in present-day education. It cannot be altogether stifled even by the unprogressive and undiscerning for it is a product of the democratic spirit of the time.

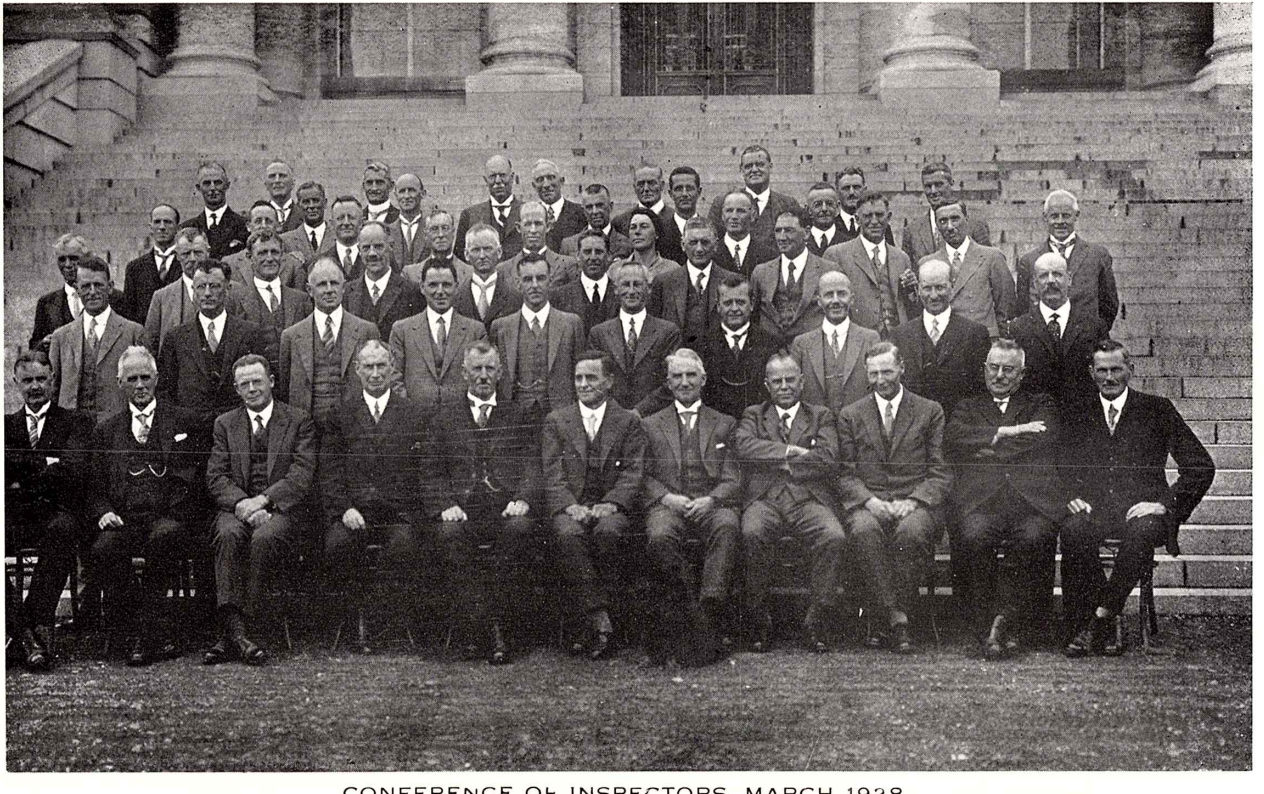
Another noticeable trend in education to-day is the increasing attention given to the more practical affairs in life. Arithmetic is taught only so far as is demanded by the business man and the craftsman. The unpractical and fanciful problems of our boyhood are gone, when we struggled with the filling of tubs when one tap was emptying and another filling, when we endeavoured to ascertain where Tom and Dick would meet when walking towards each other at different rates, when the ingenuity of every arithmetician was exercised in devising the quaintest of problems. More and more are we realizing that the school should be a training ground for living a full life. The child is a complex being that finds fulfilment and satisfaction not only in storing the memory with the knowledge accumulated in past ages, but also in creating something that he can call his own, a being whose emotions can be stirred by the music of song and literature and whose aspirations seek expression in countless ways. More and more are the teachers realizing the immense complexity of their task. Every child is a separate problem. Talents are so varied, mental differences and apparent deficiencies are so difficult to understand that the more we know of the child the more perplexing is the task. Most mothers and fathers, and no doubt a considerable number of teachers also, are blissfully ignorant of the nature of the problem the child presents, and "rough and ready" is the best phrase to describe their methods of instruction and government. The State itself

is often just as crude in its treatment of the child, and the result is the production of an anti-social being that instinctively strikes because it is struck, hides because pursuit is the order of the day, lives on others because the desire to create, the longing for self-expression have never been given satisfaction. The time is coming, alas that it is not yet here, when the mind will not be such a closed book as it is, when methods will be devised whereby the teacher will be able to gain a sympathetic insight into the child's nature and be able to understand his idiosyncrasies, his half-revealed longings, and provide a course of instruction that will develop the good and allow the bad to atrophy. Much has already been done in this direction in other countries, and our own University colleges have not ignored the problem; but more should be done in the schools themselves by expert psychologists and psychiatrists to aid teachers who discern the difficulties, to find some way of more completely understanding the child and satisfying his peculiar needs. The future is full of hope, for every year finds the State more clearly realizing its responsibilities towards its children. There are already State dental clinics and State medical clinics; to-morrow there will be mental clinics.

Much of what I have outlined regarding the present trend of education relates not only to the primary school but also to technical and secondary schools. Space does not permit a full discussion of the subject but sufficient has, I think, been said to show towards what goal education in this country appears to be moving. Briefly described, the goal we are striving for is the best and fullest development of the individual child. I feel that the discussion of my subject might well end here, but in justice to my readers some reference must be made to present-day tendencies in secondary and technical education.

For many years the only type of secondary education offered to the public was that modelled on the lines of the English Public Schools; I mean the more or less exclusive secondary schools of

the Home Land. Secondary education was intended to educate for leisure but was at the same time supposed, in accordance with the psychology of the day, to develop faculties of this and that kind. The tendency to-day is to look somewhat sceptically at such theories and to give preference to studies that bear some relation to the life of the community. So the study of French has largely displaced the study of Latin and the former is learnt as a living language. Mathematics and Science deal less with the theoretical and abstruse aspects of these subjects and more with their bearing on the practical affairs of life. In his history lessons the teacher leads his pupils to understand how the present has evolved from the past, how the nation has by slow endeavour and after many blunders improved the social conditions under which we all live and work. In my boyhood the Geography lesson consisted mainly of the memorizing of dry facts: Lisbon, on the Tagus or is it the Spree, no, that must be Berlin, exports wines. Much of the information thus stored in the memory and thus confused was out of date before it was learnt. Little or no attempt was made to relate fact to fact or to show how Nature, controlling as she does the tides, the winds, the earth movements, controls also man and his work. Geography in the secondary as in the primary school is becoming more and more a scientific study. Science itself has taken on a new meaning to the secondary school pupil through the teacher throwing into relief what science has done for man. The approach to pure science is now through applied science. Moreover, the tendency now to place the pupil as far as possible in the position of a discoverer of scientific facts has awakened the pupil's interest in scientific investigation and has prepared him to understand and appreciate those discoveries which almost every day are adding to the comfort and joy of living. These tendencies in secondary education, which are here only briefly outlined, have undoubtedly deepened the child's interest in his



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lessons and have given him a clearer conception of what education can do for him.

Further, the secondary schools no longer concern themselves with only literary studies. The courses of instruction are being more and more widened, and to-day the schools can more justly claim than ever they could that they provide a "liberal" education. There is no doubt at all that the secondary schools are gradually drawing near to the technical high schools which from the outset provided courses varied enough to suit all capacities and all desires. Now and again one hears secondary schoolmen accusing their technical brethren of providing purely literary courses leading to University matriculation, but the technical schools might just as fairly find fault with the secondary schools for providing manual and technical instruction. The truth is that the difference between the two types of institution is rapidly becoming one of name only. The trend is for New Zealand to have only one type of senior post-primary school. I feel sure, however, that eventually there will evolve senior technical schools admitting only pupils who in the general post-primary school have revealed decided aptitude for advanced technical instruction.

We have now reached a stage in our discussion of the problem of post-primary education when it becomes necessary to point out the trend of educational thought in connection with the articulation of the primary and post-primary school. There undoubtedly exists in New Zealand at the present time a strong body of public opinion in favour of the child beginning his secondary education at an earlier age than at present. The same opinion finds even more vigorous support in England than it does in New Zealand, and virtually every education authority in the Homeland is, as opportunity occurs, reorganizing its system and establishing schools intermediate between the elementary (primary) schools and the secondary schools. In England such intermediate schools are most commonly called Central Schools;

in America they are known as Junior High Schools, and this is the name that has became more familiar to us in New Zealand. In America two main causes operated in the evolution of the new institution, namely, the desirability of breaking up huge secondary schools of one thousand or even two thousand pupils and the evident advantage of being able to classify the pupils more in accordance with mental ability and revealed aptitudes. In England it was found that as the efficiency of the elementary schools increased the children finished their primary course at too early an age to enable them to go to work, and consequently the number of pupils ready for the secondary school was increasing year by year. But there was no room for them in the secondary schools and free places were very limited in number. What was to be done with the children? Either they must remain in Standard VII. and even Standard VIII. in the elementary school and be given some sort of advanced education or the authority must provide more secondary school accommodation. The former alternative was adopted but complaints that the pupils were "marking time" became so insistent that eventually the authorities decided to establish separate central schools to house not only Std. VII. and Std. VIII. pupils who could not find a place in the secondary schools but all pupils on reaching the age of eleven plus, that is, who were over eleven years of age.

Some have wondered whether this movement to provide secondary education at an earlier age than previously does not indicate a reversion to the purely literary courses of instruction that necessitated an early commencement of the study of a foreign language. I do not myself think so. The movement is founded on a genuine desire to provide an organization that will enable teachers to classify their pupils more in accordance with their relative ability. It must be obvious that a school that contains say 500 pupils ranging from infants to boys and girls of fourteen and fifteen years of age must, with a staff of normal

strength, make a much rougher classification of the children than is possible in a school containing 500 pupils ranging in age from say 12 to 14. In the latter case the intellectual pupils with a decided bent towards academic studies can be taught together, those with a bent towards business occupations can be taught together, those with high manual ability but with little inclination towards literary studies can be taught together and will not feel they are in any way inferior to those who happen to have the type of mind that can grapple with academic studies. Under such an organization the formation of the so-called inferiority complex is not at all likely since the pupil is working with others of approximately the same grade and type of mentality. It is obvious that with such an organization the probability of the school producing misfits in life's work is very remote indeed.

Of course the question arises and will soon have to be answered whether the pupils on reaching the age of about eleven, otherwise on passing Std. IV., should go to a separate junior high school or to an existing senior high school, there to enter a lower department. My present opinion is that though there is an undoubted tendency of the secondary schools to broaden and hence democratize their curricula they are still biassed towards the academic type of education, and build their reputation on the number of matriculation passes and do not include the achievements of their non-intellectual pupils. I fear, therefore, that to attach the senior primary pupils to the existing secondary schools would have the effect of drawing the pupils still further away from the more constructive occupations.

Far too many pupils at present labour unsuccessfully and without enthusiasm to master academic courses. Tiring of a task for which they are unfitted they leave school as soon as they can and never desire to enter it again. The trend of modern education is undoubtedly to ascertain what type of education will be of most benefit to the

individual child, to measure as accurately as possible his mental calibre and discover the nature of his talents. At this stage in our educational development we dare not risk such a mistake as giving undue emphasis to academic studies. However important it may be for the country to have well educated professional men and women it is just as important that there should be a sufficient supply of trained workers in other than professional fields. So keen is industrial competition to-day that the farmer must be well grounded in scientific principles to succeed. A mint of money is being wasted through the ignorance and lack of intelligence of not a few workmen. The responsibility, in part at all events, rests on the schools. Again, I say, we cannot afford to run the risk of over-emphasizing academic studies. It would therefore appear safer to provide exploratory courses in separate junior high schools for pupils who have passed Std. IV. Those who reveal distinct aptitude for literary studies can pass as soon as possible to the senior secondary school, while those whose inclinations are towards technical work can finish their course in a senior technical school. This organization certainly involves a double break in the child's school life, but this has never been regarded as a serious matter by English authorities. In any case, the pupils are frequently experiencing interruptions through changing from school to school or at least from class to class. Far more important is it to avoid the possibility of a pupil remaining in a post-primary school that cannot satisfy his real aspirations nor provide him with courses of instruction that will lead to the highest development of his powers. Doubtless the separation of the junior high school from the senior high school would not be possible in all areas. In the smaller centres we must be satisfied with a composite type of school, either junior-senior high school or junior-senior technical school or primary-secondary, that is, district high school. Whichever

type of school organization we may favour we cannot ignore the distinct trend of education towards an earlier commencement of the study of secondary subjects and the provision of facilities to explore and develop the talents and capacities of the individual child.

In much that has been written above reference has been made to technical education. There is no doubt at all that the value of this type of education is being more and more fully recognized by the people. In every branch of industry the importance of the trained workman is being recognized, and I have no doubt at all that the technical school, the most democratic of all schools, will continue to flourish. What hinders the technical school from functioning as completely as it ought, is the gap that at present exists between the school bench and the trade workshop. The conditions governing the employment of labour are such that the raw untrained boy who has just left Std. VI. is frequently preferred to the youth who has completed a course of training at a technical school. Notwithstanding that the tendency is undoubtedly in the direction of the employment of the trained apprentice, yet there are employers who distrust the technical school training, which they have probably never investigated, and who regard the technical training they themselves provide as the only kind worth consideration. The same prejudice operates in the office. There are employers who decry technical training in book-keeping and pretend to or actually do prefer untrained lads. Much of this prejudice is the natural outcome of ignorance of what the technical schools are really doing. If the courses can be improved let the employer say how they can be improved. His money helps to maintain such schools, and surely he should show sufficient interest in them to assist in bridging the gap between the school and the office or the workshop. A great deal has already been done in this direction by means of the

apprenticeship committees on which both employers and employees are represented, and there is no intention to give anything but praise for the service these committees render to the cause of technical education.

There is an uneasy feeling in the minds of some that technical schools tend to produce an army of workers who can find employment only in the towns, but this is not the case. In nearly every technical school an agricultural course is provided; in any case there are always courses in practical mechanics and in science that must be of immense value to the boy who is to become a farmer. No, there is no tendency in this country to ignore the interests of the rural worker. The trend of our national system of education is to provide efficient primary schools for country pupils, to bring the benefits of secondary and technical education as close as possible to the farm. Naturally the sparseness of our population and transit difficulties due to the hilly nature of the country make it very costly indeed to centralize educational institutions. There is, however, no doubt that in the future there will be more and more consolidation of country schools which will bring the benefits of higher education closer to the farm.

University education is being fully dealt with by another writer and it must suffice here to refer only to the trend of university policy. A marked feature in all the colleges has been the development of advanced evening classes for workers of all kinds. To some, these classes do not appear a source of strength, inasmuch as the students attending them have little or no opportunity to benefit by a full university life, or to participate in the interchange of thought and experience that forms such a valuable aid to student training. Though I am not in a position to speak authoritatively on the question of university lectures, I believe I am right in saying that there is a growing tendency on the part of the professors to do more than read

lectures, a practice only too common in my own youth, and to provide opportunities for discussion with and by the students. The development of university extension lectures is also worthy of notice, although more might, I think, be done in this direction. The W.E.A.* classes are fathered by the university colleges, but can only in part be considered as being in the nature of university extension. The increased government grants recently made to most of the colleges may perhaps aid in extending university teaching to country districts. There appears no reason why the expert officers of the various Government Departments such as Public Health and Agriculture, should not co-operate with the University Colleges in organizing combined extension lectures in country districts. The lecturers could travel in company, the University Home Science staff and the officers of the Health Department instructing the ladies and the officers of the Department of Agriculture instructing the men. But can we so combine? There is almost as much dissipation of energy and lack of combined effort in the educational sphere as there unfortunately is in our voluntary philanthropic organizations.

With regard to University government there was a marked trend a few years ago towards the establishment of a Federal University consisting of constituent colleges, autonomous for the most part, but governed in some degree by a National University Council. There has been, and I think unfortunately, a check to this movement, and the Council that governs the University of New Zealand seems disinclined to assume responsibilities with respect to the constituent colleges. The consequence of this is that the tendency, fortunately less marked in these days than in earlier years, for each college to develop its activities without reference to what was being done in other

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colleges, will probably still operate, and it seems likely that the task of checking wasteful duplication and overlapping will be left to the Government. I still hope, however, that in the future a Council will arise that will cast off the shackles of tradition and assume control of University education throughout the land.

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FIFTY YEARS OF NATIONAL EDUCATION IN NEW ZEALAND, 1878-1928.